

**MANAGING THE**

**SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE**

**TOWARDS PRODUCTIVITY:**

**A HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

**PERSPECTIVE**



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Dissertation presented for the Degree of Doctor  
of Philosophy at the University of Stellenbosch.

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## **DECLARATION**

I, the undersigned hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

**S. B. KAHN**



## **SUMMARY**

The end of apartheid, April 1994 brought the dawn of a new era and the integration of the seven armed forces into the South African National Defence Force. For the first time in the history of South Africa, former enemies are not only colleagues, but work together to guard the sovereignty of the state and defend the country against foreign invasion. The eradication of discriminatory policies and practices established an environment conducive to the implementation of affirmative action and equal employment opportunities. It also instituted special training and development programmes to accommodate historically disadvantaged employees. The effectiveness of these programmes will determine the extent to which disadvantaged employees will contribute to increased productivity and the effectiveness of the South African National Defence Force.

Organisational transformation needs to be externally and internally visible. On 27 April 1994, the South African National Defence Force started a process of change and some of the changes soon affected were in:

- language policy, including the use of English as the official medium of communication;
- appointing a Secretary of Defence as the accounting officer;
- organisational culture, structure and design; and
- uniform and rank insignia.

This research (1994 to 2001), however, found that the South African National Defence Force is still grappling with the challenge of being productive amidst the impediments created by the integration of seven former enemy forces. In addition, the former South African Defence Force entered into the amalgamation as two groups, one with a long history of military experience, the other allowed into the former force much later, still subject to various discriminatory constraints. The dissertation focuses on human resource

variables to find solutions. Productivity is defined as the input of resources (material, capital, technological and human) and the output of greater qualitative and quantitative consumable goods and services. It improves the factors of production and benefits all stakeholders (government, entrepreneurs, management and employees). Increased productivity is achieved by a motivated workforce, whose competencies, abilities, skills and advanced technology are used to increase performance. However also, management needs to capitalise on employees' competencies, skills and abilities to optimally utilise them and appoint the most competent employees to the most appropriate positions. Management also needs to accept responsibility for achieving increased productivity and reaching organisational goals and objectives since they manage, command and control organisational resources.

The South African National Defence Force can achieve increased productivity by the optimal utilisation of its resources. It now has sophisticated armament, equipment and technology. The South African National Defence Force however also needs competent and professional employees to maximise the use of existing armament, equipment and technology. The diverse workforce should be trained, developed, motivated and optimally utilised to increase their performance and enhance productivity.

Professional leaders and managers are needed to manage the resources of the South African National Defence Force during the transformation period and the twenty-first century. Effective leadership results in effective human resource management, which is needed to manage, motivate, train and develop the diverse workforce to be effective, creative and productive, and to achieve increased performance and productivity. This will enable the South African National Defence Force to accomplish increased productivity and to exceed the military professionalism of the former South African Defence Force.



## **OPSOMMING**

Die einde van apartheid, April 1994 was die begin van 'n nuwe era en die integrasie van die sewe magte het gelei tot die totstandkoming van die Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Weermag. Vir die eerste keer in die Suid-Afrikaanse geskiedenis is die voormalige vyande nie net kollegas nie, maar mede-beskermers van die soewereiniteit van die staat, en hulle beskerm die Republiek van Suid-Afrika teen enige vreemde inval of bedreiging teen die land. Die afskaffing van diskriminerende beleid en gebruike het 'n omgewing geskep vir die implementering van regstellende aksie en gelyke werksgeleenthede. Dit het ook spesiale opleiding- en ontwikkelingsprogramme ingestel om die histories benadeelde werkers te akkommodeer. Die effektiwiteit van hierdie programme sal bepaal tot watter mate die benadeelde werkers sal bydra tot verhoogde produktiwiteit en effektiwiteit van die Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Weermag.

Die bewyse van organisatoriese transformasie moet ekstern en intern sigbaar wees. Die Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Weermag het reeds begin met die proses van verandering op 27 April 1994, en die veranderinge wat gou aangebring is, was in:

- kommunikasietaal en die aanvaarding van Engels as voertaal;
- die aanstel van 'n Sekretaris van Verdediging as rekenpligtige beampte;
- organisatoriese kultuur en strukture; en
- uniform en ranginsignia.

Hierdie navorsing (1994 tot 2001) het egter gevind dat die Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Weermag steeds worstel met die uitdaging van produktiwiteit te midde van die hindernisse wat uit die integrasie van sewe voormalige vyandelike magte ontstaan het. Daarbenewens het die voormalige Suid-Afrikaanse Weermag die samesmelting ingegaan as twee groepe, een met a lang geskiedenis van militêre ondervinding, die ander veel later toegelaat tot die voormalige mag en steeds onderwerp aan verskeie diskriminerende beperkinge.

Die proefskrif fokus op menslike hulpbron veranderlikes om oplossings te kry. Produktiwiteit word gedefinieer as die inset van hulpbronne (materiaal, kapitaal, tegnologie en menslik) en die uitset van beter kwalitatiewe en kwantitatiewe produkte en dienste. Produktiwiteit verbeter die faktore van produksie en bevoordeel alle rolspelers (die staat, bestuurders and werkers). Verhoogde produktiwiteit kan slegs verkry word deur 'n gemotiveerde werksmag, wat hul vaardighede en gevorderde tegnologie gebruik om uitset te verhoog. Om verhoogde produktiwiteit te bereik moet bestuurders kapitaliseer op werkers se vaardighede en hulle optimaal benut. As gevolg van die feit dat leiers en bestuurders organisatoriese bronne bestuur, beheer en kontroleer, aanvaar hulle ook verantwoordelikheid vir die behaling van verhoogde produktiwiteit en organisatoriese doelwitte.

Die Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Weermag kan verhoogde produktiwiteit bereik deur die optimale benutting van hulpbronne. Die Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Weermag beskik oor nuwe wapentuig, toerusting en tegnologie. Die Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Weermag benodig egter ook professionele werkers om die huidige wapentuig en tegnologie ten volle te benut. Daarom moet die veelsydige werksmag opgelei, ontwikkel, gemotiveer en optimaal benut word sodat hulle produktiwiteit kan verhoog.

Professionele leiers en bestuurders word daadwerklik benodig om die hulpbronne van die Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Weermag gedurende die transformasieproses en die een-en-twintigste eeu te bestuur. Effektiewe leierskap het effektiewe menslike hulpbronstuur tot gevolg wat benodig word om 'n veelsydige werksmag te bestuur, motiveer en ontwikkel, sodat hulle effektief, kreetief en produktief kan wees. Die veelsydige werksmag kan bydra tot verhoogde produktiwiteit en kan die militere professionalisme van die vorige Suid-Afrikaanse Weermag oortref.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

### DEDICATION

I want to praise and thank God for blessing me with understanding, patience, endurance, strength and consolation throughout my years of study. I wish to express my gratitude to my loving family, a community of dear friends and colleagues for their collective energies, spirit and support, who helped me to bring this study to fruition. I celebrate this accomplishment with the following people:

Professor Schwella, director of the School of Public Management and Planning at the inception of the study. Your inspiration has been the driving force behind this dissertation. Thank you for asking me to read my work carefully. This dissertation is dedicated to Doreen, Jean, John and Silvana. You are my promoter and current director of the School of Public Management and Planning. Your generous encouragement from the outset of the dissertation and constructive advice and confidence in my efforts were very affirming. Your gentle and spontaneous input during the formative and final stages of this dissertation will always be remembered.

*"For I know the plans I have for you,*

*declares the Lord, plans to prosper you,*

*and not to harm you, plans to give you*

*hope and a future" Jeremiah 29:11.*

My wife, Jean and daughter, Silvana and parents, Doreen and John, and rest of my family: Audrey, Simon, Naomi, Mary, Kingsley and Ronwen who supported, inspired and encouraged me throughout my years of study. In you, my loving family, I can continue to discover a collective wisdom and preserving modesty.

Finally, a special thanks to the people who have given their time and assistance in completing this manuscript. They are Loretta Adams, Thelma Adams, Hillary Baatjies, Kim Group, Jakes Jacobs, Melody Kahn, Ester Le Roux, Miempie Louw, Solly Mollo, Kenneth Morris, Trust Ndlovu, Ronnie Nematou, Suelia Savage, Jackie Sedibe, Julian Theunissen, Dlamalo Tshiki, Sasi Veldtsman, Moyra Venter and Carol Zietsman.



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## **TABLE OF CONTENTS**

	Page
Declaration	iii
Summary	iv
Opsomming	vi
Dedication	viii
Acknowledgements	ix

### **CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION**

1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Background of the Study	3
1.3	Problem Statement	21
1.4	Goals of the Study	22
1.5	Objectives of the Study	22
1.6	Outline of the Study	23
1.7	Method of Investigation	26
1.8	Scope of the Study	27
1.9	Conclusion	28

### **CHAPTER 2: THEORIES OF PRODUCTIVITY**

2.1	Introduction	29
2.2	Historical Overview	30



2.3	Concepts of Productivity	33
2.3.1	Outcome of Productivity	40
2.3.1.1	Benefits of Productivity	40
2.3.1.2	Consequences of Productivity	43
2.4	Factors which Influence Productivity	44
2.4.1	Physical Variables	46
2.4.1.1	Structure	46
2.4.1.2	Technology	51
2.4.2	Human Resource Variables	54
2.4.2.1	Human Resource Management	58
2.4.2.2	Motivation	63
2.4.2.3	Organisational Culture	66
2.4.2.4	Productivity Index	69
2.5	Conclusion	71

### **CHAPTER 3:      MANAGING HUMAN RESOURCES**

3.1	Introduction	73
3.2	Human Resource Management	76
3.3	Human Resource Planning	84
3.4	Human Resource Development	89
3.4.1	Training and Development	90
3.4.2	Learning	92
3.4.3	Management Development	94
3.5	Managing Diversity	99

3.5.1	Utilising a Diverse Workforce	100
3.5.2	Diversity Increases Productivity	102
3.5.3	Challenges of Managing Diversity	105
3.5.4	Affirmative Action	108
3.6	Conclusion	112

#### **CHAPTER 4:        MOTIVATING A WORKFORCE**

4.1	Introduction	115
4.2	The Meaning of Motivation	116
4.3	Motivation Theories	117
4.4	Content Theories of Motivation	120
4.4.1	Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory	120
4.4.2	Alderfer's ERG Theory	122
4.4.3	Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory	123
4.4.4	McClelland's Theory of Learned Needs	125
4.5	Process Theory of Motivation	127
4.5.1	Cognitive Evaluative Theory	127
4.5.2	The Goal-Setting Theory	129
4.5.3	The Expectancy Theory	130
4.6	Reinforcement Theory	134
4.6.1	Types of Reinforcement	134
4.6.2	Schedules of Reinforcement	136
4.7	Performance Appraisals	140
4.7.1	The Role of a Supervisor	142

4.7.2	Methods of Assessment	145
4.8	Challenges of Performance Appraisals	149
4.9	Conclusion	152

## **CHAPTER 5:        ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

5.1	Introduction	154
5.2	The Meaning of Organisational Culture	155
5.3	The Nature of Organisational Culture	157
5.3.1	Organisational Culture and Performance	161
5.3.2	Manager's Role in Cultural Change	165
5.4	Leadership	170
5.4.1	Transformational Leadership	174
5.4.2	Transactional Leadership	177
5.4.3	Instrumental Leadership	182
5.4.4	Military Leadership	185
5.5	Conclusion	200

## **CHAPTER 6:        SOCIAL IMBALANCES AND PRODUCTIVITY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE**

6.1	Introduction	203
6.2	Social Imbalances ✓	205
6.3	Affirmative Action ✓	218
6.4	The Military Approach to Productivity	224

6.5	Conclusion	232
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## **CHAPTER 7: ANALYSIS OF FACTORS INFLUENCING PRODUCTIVITY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE**

7.1	Introduction	234
7.2	Organisational Culture	236
7.3	Human Resource Management	244
7.3.1	Human Resource Planning	246
7.3.2	Human Resource Development	250
7.3.2.1	Training and Development	253
7.3.2.2	Training Increases Performance	254
7.3.3	Managing Diversity	259
7.4	Motivation	266
7.5	Productivity Index	269
7.6	Conclusion	273

## **CHAPTER 8: FINDINGS**

8.1	Introduction	276
8.2	Productivity	280
8.3	Human Resource Management	285
8.3.1	Human Resource Planning	289
8.3.2	Human Resource Development	291
8.3.2.1	Training and Development	292
8.3.2.2	Training Increases Performance	293

8.3.3	Managing Diversity	296
8.4	Motivation	298
8.4.1	Content Theories of Motivation	299
8.4.2	Process Theories of Motivation	301
8.4.3	Reinforcement Theory	302
8.5	Organisational Culture	303
8.6	Social Imbalance	307
8.7	Summary Deductions	311
8.7.1	Productivity	311
8.7.2	Human Resource Management	312
8.7.3	Motivation	315
8.7.4	Organisational Culture	315
8.7.5	Social Imbalance	316
8.8	Conclusion	317

## **CHAPTER 9:        RECOMMENDATIONS**

9.1	Introduction	319
9.2	Productivity	320
9.3	Organisational Culture	323
9.4	Human Resource Management	328
9.5	Managing Diversity	331
9.6	Motivation	338
9.7	Summary Recommendations	339
9.8	Conclusion	339



**CHAPTER 10: GENERAL OVERVIEW**

10.1	Introduction	347
10.2	Organisational Culture	350
10.3	Human Resource Management	353
10.4	Motivation	357
10.5	Social Imbalance	361
10.6	Productivity	362
10.7	Future Research	365
10.8	Conclusion	366
<b>REFERENCES</b>		368

## CHAPTER 1

### GENERAL INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

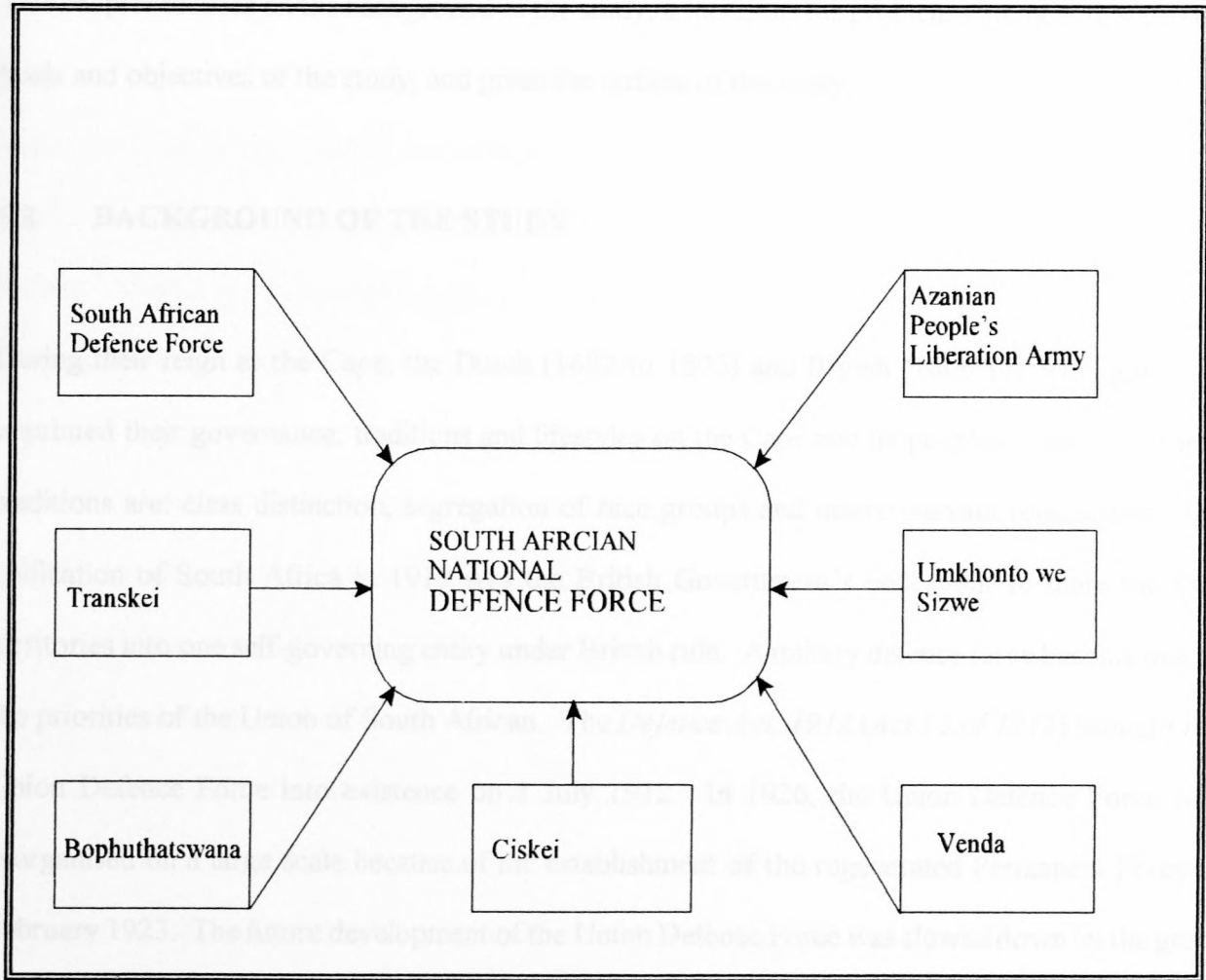
The South African Constitution, 1996 (*Act 108 of 1996*), determined that the South African National Defence Force would henceforth be the only military institution. On 27 April 1994, the Statutory Forces (South African Defence Force, Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Ciskei and Venda) and the Non-Statutory Forces (Umkhonto we Sizwe and the Azanian People's Liberation Army) were integrated into the South African National Defence Force. This integration is illustrated in Figure 1.1. The integration of the seven armed forces created opportunities, challenges and threats (discussed in 1.2) that seemed to challenge the productivity and professionalism of the South African National Defence Force. This study discusses the period (1994 - 2001) immediately following the integration of the seven armed forces into the South African National Defence Force.

At the inception of the integration of the seven armed forces into the South African National Defence Force, productivity became the key issue in management circles. It reflected the South Africa National Defence Force's determination to remain a professional and formidable force south of the Sub-Sahara. There were different opinions with regard to the meaning of productivity. There were also different views on whether the integrated armed forces could increase productivity and the measurement that would be applied. Productivity has had a variety of meanings and applications throughout the twentieth century. It is an efficiency concept of output divided by input. The diversity of meanings and applications reflects not only different historical periods, but also the reality of conflict and contested meaning over accomplishing more with less or doing a more effective job



FIGURE 1.1: THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE

SOURCE: Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005



This study addresses the need for managing the South African National Defence Force towards productivity from a human resource management perspective as it enters the twenty-first century, and focuses on theories of productivity, human resource management, motivation, organisational culture and leadership, social imbalances and the South African National Defence Force's approach toward productivity.

This chapter focuses on the background of the study; it mentions the problem statement; it states the goals and objectives of the study; and gives the outline of the study.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

During their reign at the Cape, the Dutch (1682 to 1805) and British (1806 to 1910) gradually imprinted their governance, traditions and lifestyles on the Cape and its peoples. Some of these traditions are: class distinction, segregation of race groups and master-servant relationship. The unification of South Africa in 1910 was the British Government's endeavour to unite the four territories into one self-governing entity under British rule. A unitary defence force became one of the priorities of the Union of South Africa. The *Defence Act, 1912 (Act 13 of 1912)* brought the Union Defence Force into existence on 1 July 1912. In 1926, the Union Defence Force was reorganised on a large scale because of the establishment of the regenerated Permanent Force in February 1923. The future development of the Union Defence Force was slowed down by the great depression of 1929 to 1933. However, the five-year Development Plan initiated in 1934 by Oswald Pirow, the Minister of Defence, marked the beginning of a new era. The reorganisation envisaged in 1938, and many of the expansions, could not be implemented nor executed due to the outbreak of the Second World War. The Armistice in 1945 was followed by large-scale demobilisation of the Union Defence Force. From 1912 to 1994, transformation in the political and socio-economic spheres of South Africa has affected and influenced the military forces as follows: the establishment



of the Union Defence Force on 1 July 1912; the creation of the Citizen and Commando Force; the designation of the Union Defence Force to the South African Defence Force in 1957; and the integration of the seven Armed Forces into the South African National Defence Force on 27th April 1994, which end the apartheid era.

The end of apartheid and the establishment of democracy have given rise to dramatic changes in the external strategic environment of South Africa. South Africa is no longer isolated internationally. It is involved in many international organisations, most importantly the United Nations (UN), the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) and the Southern African Development Community (SADC). South Africa is expected to play an active role in these forums, especially with regard to peace and security in Africa and in Southern Africa in particular. There are expectations that South Africa will become involved in multi-national peace support operations on the sub-continent.

The sub-continent as a whole has undergone substantial change since the end of the Cold War. Considerable progress has been made towards the resolution of internal conflicts, the establishment of democratic political systems, and demilitarisation and disarmament. The prospects for regional peace and stability are greater today than at any other time in recent decades. Nevertheless, much of the sub-continent is stricken by chronic underdevelopment and the attendant problems of poverty, illiteracy and unemployment. There are large numbers of refugees and displaced people; an acute debt crisis; widespread disease and environmental degradation; and a proliferation of small arms. Certain states remain politically volatile for example, the civil war in Angola and Mozambique. Regional instability and underdevelopment can only be addressed meaningfully through political reform, socio-economic development and inter-state co-operation in these spheres. This means that countries are depending on one another, which allows for a period of relative peace.

South Africa is not confronted by an immediate conventional military threat, and does not anticipate

external military aggression in the short- to medium-term. The long-term future cannot be determined with any degree of certainty because international relations are unpredictable. They are characterised by both co-operation and competition in areas such as political, economic, military and environmental issues. The South African National Defence Force has to maintain a core defence capability because of the inherent unpredictability of the future. Such capability cannot be created from scratch if the need suddenly arises. The maintenance and development of weapons systems are a long-term endeavour that is driven by the political situation, the military threat and economics (affordability), which fall outside the scope of this dissertation. The military capabilities should enable the South African National Defence Force to achieve its mandate.

In terms of the *Defence Act, 1957 (Act 41 of 1957 as amended by Act 72 of 1995)*, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, (*Act 108 of 1996*), and the White Paper on Defence, the defined purpose of the South African National Defence Force is the defence of the Republic of South Africa against external and internal threats and for service in:

- the defence of the Republic for the protection of its sovereignty and territorial integrity;
- compliance with the international obligations of the Republic with regard to international bodies and other states;
- the preservation of life, health or property;
- the provision or maintenance of essential services;
- the upholding of law and order in the Republic in co-operation with the South African Police Service (SAPS), under circumstances set out in law, where the SAPS is unable to maintain law and order on its own; and
- support of any department of State for the purpose of socio-economic upliftment.

From the above discussion it could be argued that the purpose of the South African Defence Force in the period 1957 to 1995 was primarily to defend the borders of South Africa against external



threats and internally to support the South African Police Services in maintaining law and order.

In order for the South African National Defence Force to accomplish its primary mission and secondary functions it has to achieve its military strategic objectives, which is derived from the Constitution, the Defence Review, the White Paper on Defence and the National Security Strategy of the Government. The national security strategy is derived from implied national interests, the objectives of Clusters, which include the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD). The need to actively promote peace and security in the region is therefore a key tenet of the Government's security strategy, which directs the South African National Defence Force strategy. According to the South African National Defence Force's Strategic Business Plan FY 2004/05 to 2006/07, the military strategies are the following:

- Defence Against Aggression. The provision of self-defence in accordance with international law against any external threat of aggression, which endangers the stability of South Africa.
- Promoting Security. The provision of external deployment or support to enhance security in support of decisions by the executive.
- Supporting the People of South Africa. Supporting the population of South Africa in operations and activities other than war, when the responsible State departments do not have adequate capacity to do so.

The military strategic concepts describe the ways to be followed to meet the military strategic objectives. The South African National Defence Force will use a mission-based approach to achieve the military strategic objectives of the Department of Defence. This approach uses wartime and peacetime missions to direct the peacetime strategy for force preparation and to guide joint and combined force preparation and force employment for incidences of conflict. The concepts are as follows:

- **Mission-Essential Training.** The South African National Defence Force is to educate, train and develop its soldiers in the essential knowledge and skills required to perform the tasks necessary to accomplish its missions.
- **Mission-Trained Force.** A force prepared and supported to execute identified missions (within the parameters of the selective engagement concept).
- **Selective Engagement.** The concept of selective engagement indicates that the South African National Defence Force will execute all the prescribed missions, but will be selective in terms of the extent to which operations and tasks, emanating from these missions, will be performed. This concept implies that calculated risks will have to be taken. The Chief of the South African National Defence Force will advise the National Executive (the President and Cabinet), who ultimately decides on the extent of the operations.
- **Strategic Positioning.** The South African National Defence Force is willing to proactively establish a sound security environment, supported by influencing political and military foreign relations actions, and the pre-placement of appropriate military capabilities.

The study explores solutions that enable the South African National Defence Force to achieve its mission-essential training objective. This is done by analysing contemporary human resource issues that influence employees performance and productivity.

In order for the South African National Defence Force to achieve its military strategy it has to maintain a core defence capability. These capabilities consist of: command and control, communications, computers, information, intelligence, infrastructure, reconnaissance and surveillance (C4I3RS); light mobile; conventional warfare capability and support capability. The achievement of the South African National Defence Force's strategic goals depend to a great extent on the professionalism and productivity of the South African National Defence Force. The strategic goals can be achieved through the effective management of physical variables and human resource



variables (discussed in Chapter 2). The effectiveness of the military capabilities depends on their efficient application, which requires trained, competent and motivated employees. The human resource variables can provide the workforce of the South African National Defence Force with such capabilities.

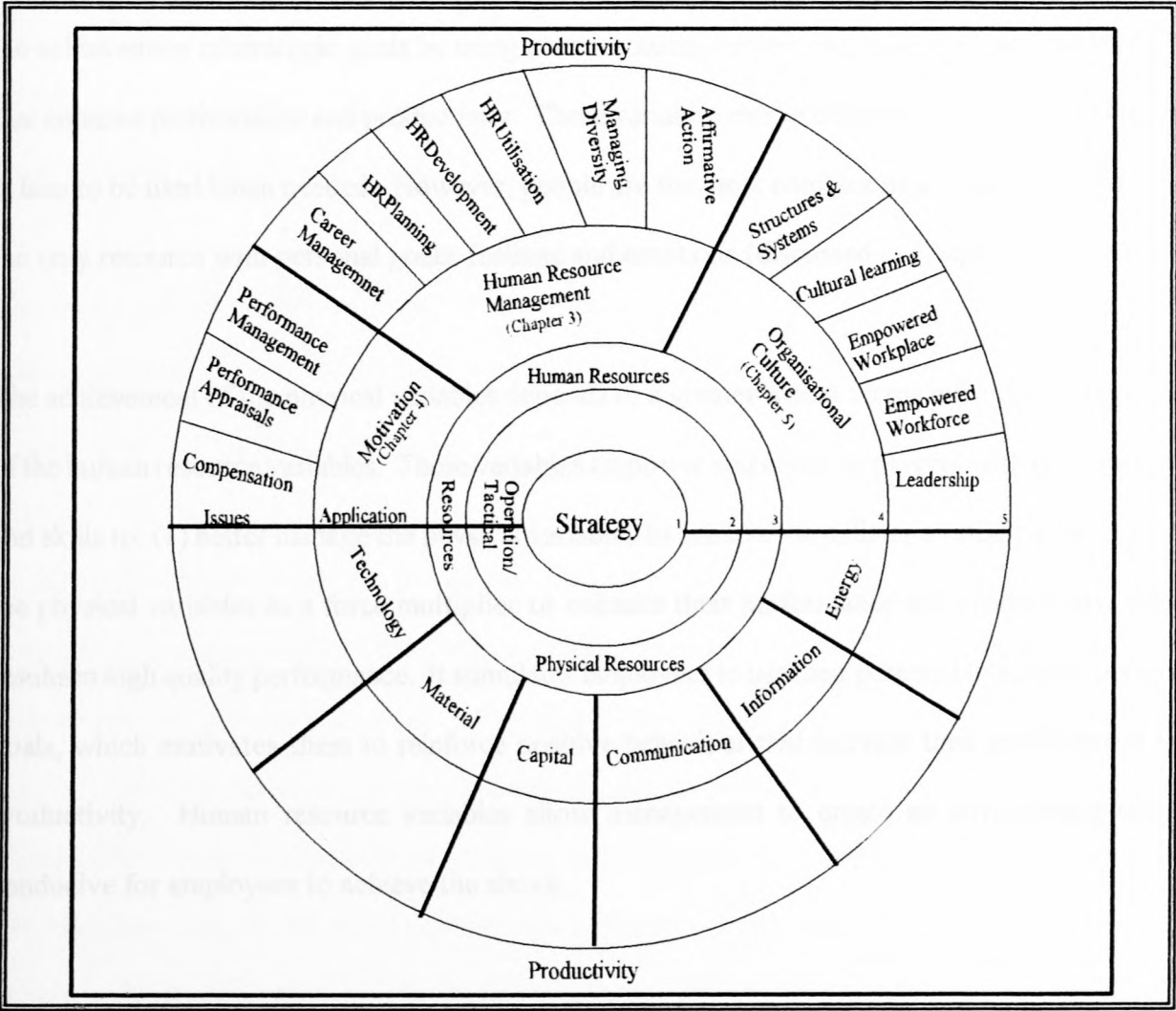
Figure 1.2 illustrates the military strategy and productivity variables that are used to achieve the South African National Defence Force's strategic goals. The first circle represents the military strategy as discussed above. In order to achieve the strategy the operational and tactical goals (see circle 2) should be achieved. The South African National Defence Force needs physical and human resources (see circle 3) to achieve its operational and tactical goals. There are various factors (see circle 4) that influence the effective utilisation of the physical and human resources. These resources are influenced by various contemporary issues (see circle 5) that impact their effectiveness. The management of these factors impacts on the resources, which in turn influences productivity.

The purpose of this dissertation is not to analyse strategy and macro-level force planning, force preparation and force utilisation, but to analyse contemporary tactical and operational human resource issues impacting on productivity and to make recommendations on how to address these issues. The macro-level force planning, force preparation and force utilisation ensure that soldiers are 'operational ready' to achieve the mission. They are trained and motivated to be utilised in peace missions and combat situations. The human resource variables that correspond with these factors are human resource planning, human resource development and human resource utilisation. These factors ensure that soldiers are 'psychological prepared and ready' to achieve the mission. These factors allow soldiers to be assessed and utilised according to their potential, which enables them to achieve personal and organisational goals. Organisational culture (discussed in Chapter 5) creates an environment that is conducive to achieve the above.



FIGURE 1.2: MILITARY STRATEGIES AND PRODUCTIVITY VARIABLES

SOURCE: Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005



The dissertation focuses on a theoretical analyse of contemporary human resource issues to address tactical and operational military issues. It argues that contemporary human resource issues empower employees to: (1) better manage productivity variables to achieve the South African National Defence Force strategy, macro-level force planning, force preparation and force utilisation; (2) effectively use human resource variables to empower employees with competencies and skills to increase their performance and productivity. The physical variables (see 6.4) directly contribute to the achievement of strategic goals by using core resources (armament, equipment and technology) that enhance performance and productivity. These variables can be ordered, categorised and placed in bins to be used when needed. However, people are the most complex of all resources. They are the only resource with personal goals, feelings and emotions (discussed in Chapters 3 and 4).

The achievement of the physical variables depends to a greater extent on the effective management of the human resource variables. These variables empower and equip employees with competencies and skills to: (1) better manage the physical variables to achieve the military strategic goals; (2) use the physical variables as a force multiplier to enhance their performance and productivity, which results in high quality performance. It stimulates employees to use their potential to achieve personal goals, which motivates them to reinforce positive behaviour that increase their performance and productivity. Human resource variables allow management to create an environment that is conducive for employees to achieve the above.

The physical variables are needed to optimise the military capability, but are depending on people with the necessary competencies and skills to operate and manage them. The study addresses how contemporary human resource issues can be used to address tactical and operational military issues to increase productivity. It also focuses on how the South African National Defence Force can better use its potential through human resources. The effective management of people ensures the:



(1) maintenance of technical, managerial and organisational skills and resources (discussed in Chapter 3); (2) motivation (discussed in Chapter 4), training, development and optimal utilisation of all employees (discussed in Chapter 3); (3) systems, structures and practices (discussed in Chapter 5) are operational.

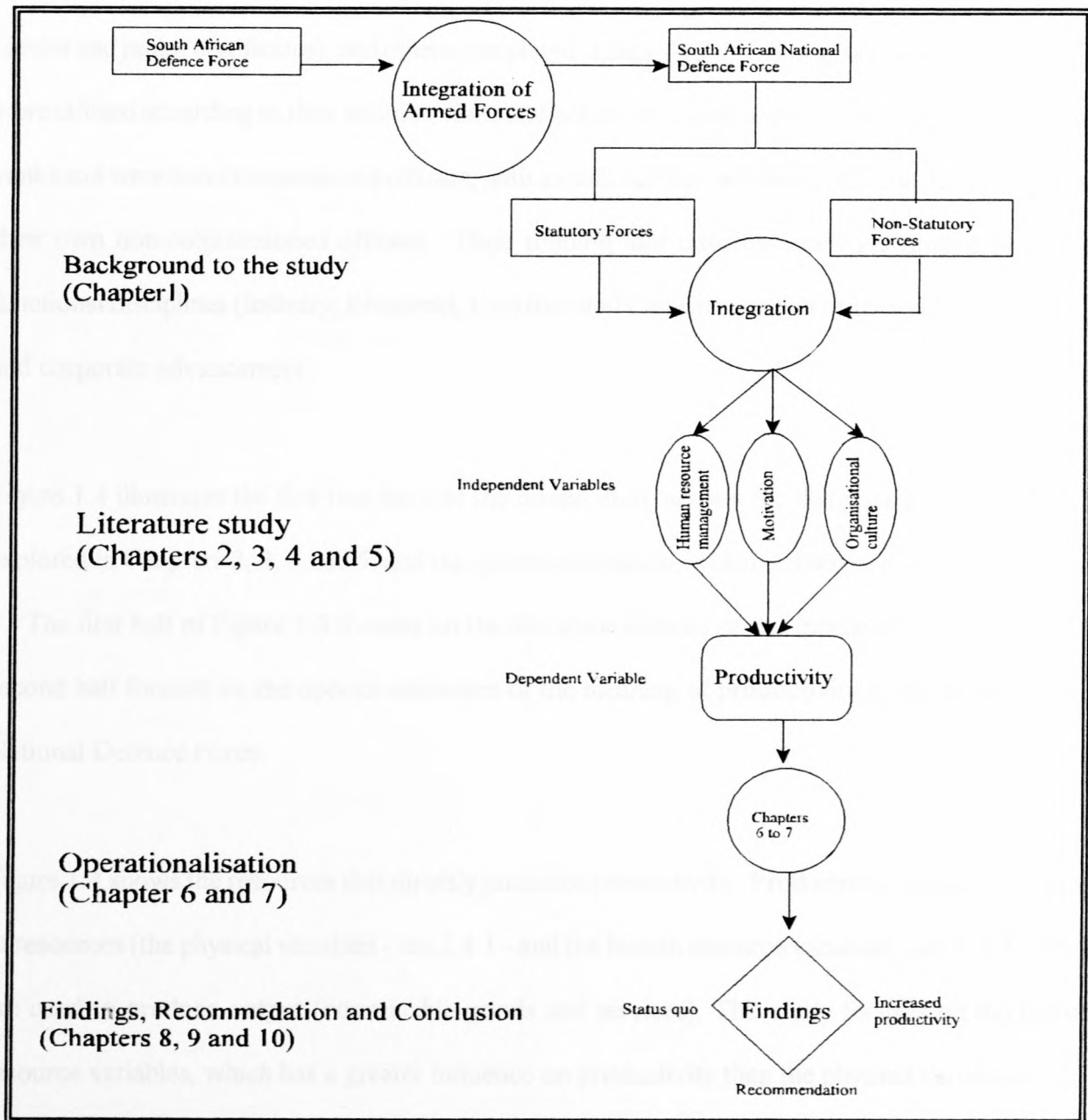
Chapter 6 alludes to how technology (in the second circle) contributes towards the South African National Defence Force's professionalism and productivity. The influence of the human resource variables (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture) (in the third circle) on productivity is discussed in chapter 7.

Figure 1.3 illustrates the background, literature study and operationalisation that influence the managing of the South African National Defence Force for productivity from a human resource management perspective. The background deals with the South African Defence Force as a sub-culture of the national culture of South Africa. The South African National Defence Force comprise of different race groups that can be deduced from Figure 1.1. The major racial groupings are: white Afrikaners, English-speaking whites, Xhosas, Zulus, Ciskeians, Vendas, Coloured and Asians. These race groups are distinguished from one another by language, religion, cultural values, norms and beliefs. Therefore, the workforce of the South African Defence Force comprises of different social classes. The implementation of discriminatory rules, regulations, procedures, policies and practices widened the economic and social gulf between blacks and whites, and created two distinct working classes in the workforce: the privileged and the disadvantaged. The latter's lack of training, due to no fault of their own negatively influenced their performance and productivity.

There was social division even within the privileged classes. Top officers came from the upper social class, they attended the Military Academy and were assured of good career paths. Senior and junior

**FIGURE 1.3: FACTORS INFLUENCING MANAGING PRODUCTIVITY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE**

**SOURCE:** Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005





officers came from the upper middle class, some attended the Military Academy, but all were trained, developed and utilised in managerial positions. The non-commissioned officers and other ranks came from the middle, working and lower social classes. They were educated, trained, developed and utilised according to their abilities, competencies and skills in positions where they best served the interest of the South African Defence Force. The disadvantaged employees (Africans, Asians and Coloureds) came from the middle and lower social classes. The majority graduated from high school (senior and junior certificates), and others completed standards 5 to 7. The disadvantaged employees were utilised according to their abilities, skills and academic qualifications. The majority filled other ranks and were non-commissioned officers, with a small number becoming officers, primarily to lead their own non-commissioned officers. Their training and development were limited to certain functional disciplines (Infantry, Personnel, Logistics and Catering), which restricted their utilisation and corporate advancement.

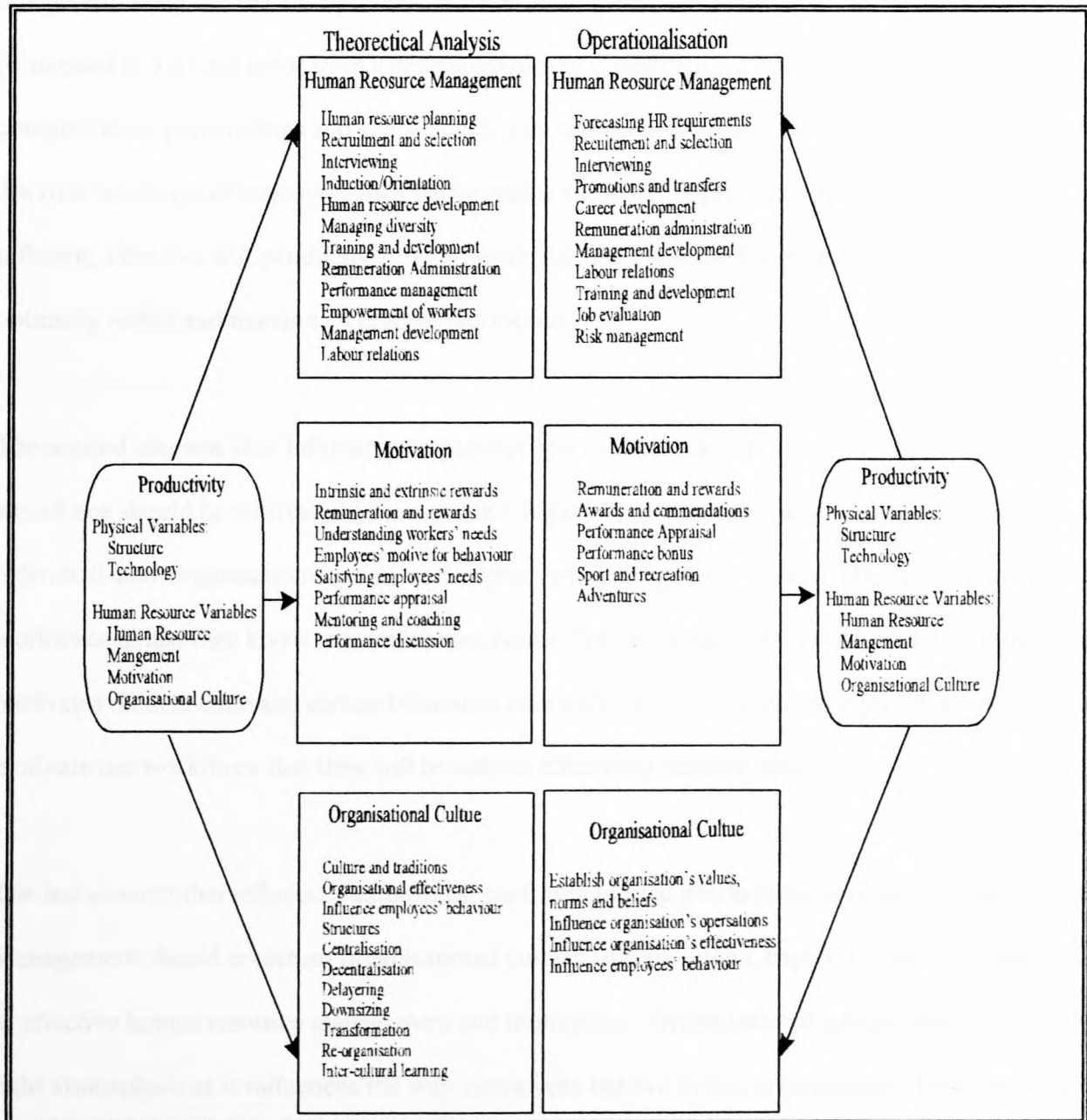
Figure 1.4 illustrates the first two parts of the dissertation, namely the literature analysis, which is explored in Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5, and the operationalisation, which is discussed in Chapters 6 and 7. The first half of Figure 1.3 focuses on the literature analysis of the independent variables. The second half focuses on the operationalisation of the meaning of productivity in the South African National Defence Force.

Figure 1.4 shows the resources that directly influence productivity. Productivity refers to the input of resources (the physical variables - see 2.4.1 - and the human resource variables - see 2.4.2) which are used to produce output (consumable goods and services). This study focuses on the human resource variables, which has a greater influence on productivity than the physical variables.

Therefore, this study focuses on human resource management (discussed in Chapter 3), because it is a management function that is used to manage an organisation's human resources.

**FIGURE 1.4: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THEORETICAL ANALYSIS AND OPERATIONALISATION**

**SOURCE:** Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005





Human resource management involves three crucial aspects: human resource planning, human resource development and managing diversity (utilising the workforce). The workforce of the South African National Defence Force should be selected, trained, developed and utilised (discussed in 3.3 and 3.4), particularly the disadvantaged employees, so that they can increase their abilities, competencies, skills and performance that enhance productivity. Once the workforce is trained and competent, they should be optimally utilised and effectively managed. The diverse workforce (discussed in 3.5) can draw from a wide spectrum of qualifications, interests, experiences, abilities, competencies, personalities and skills, which they can use to find innovative and creative solutions, discover new ways of improving their performance and increase productivity. This makes them more efficient, effective and productive. The South African National Defence Force should therefore optimally utilise and manage its diverse workforce.

The second element that influences employees' performance and productivity is motivation. The workforce should be motivated (discussed in Chapter 4) so that they can achieve self-actualisation, individual and organisational goals and objectives. Management cannot effectively manage the workforce unless they know what motivates (see 4.5) them, what their needs (see 4.4) are and what motivates them in choosing certain behaviour (see 4.6). It is only when management knows how to motivate the workforce that they will be able to effectively manage them.

The last element that influences employees' performance and productivity is organisational culture. Management should create an organisational culture (discussed in Chapter 5), which is conducive to effective human resource management and motivation. Organisational culture should create the right atmosphere as it influences the way employees behave in the organisation. How employees perform, view their job, work with their colleagues and look at the future are largely determined by the organisation's cultural values, norms and beliefs. Management controls the organisation's resources. Therefore, to effectively manage the organisation's most vital resource, its human



resource (discussed in Chapter 3), management should create a culture and work environment in which employees can use their abilities, competencies and skills to increase their performance and enhance productivity.

The absence of human resource management means that the best candidates are not attracted and retained; the employees are not trained, developed and optimally utilised; and the most competent employees are not appointed to the most appropriate positions. The absence of motivation means that the employees' needs are not identified and satisfied, nor does management know why employees behave in specific ways under certain circumstances. Management is, as a result, unable to satisfy employees' needs, which has a negative impact on their behaviour and influences their performance and productivity. The absence of organisational culture suggests that management is not concerned about the well-being of the employees and has no designed plan that could bring about positive behaviour to influence employees' performance and productivity. The absence of one human resource variables (see Figure 1.3) could have a negative impact on the other resources, which would negatively influence performance and productivity.

Figure 1.5 illustrates the integration of the Non-Statutory Forces and former Homelands Military Forces into the South African National Defence. The statistics indicate that the largest component of these forces was integrated into the South African Army and the smallest component into the South African Air Force. The South African Army is therefore the largest component of the workforce of the South African National Defence Force, and will have more employees to train and develop, as their qualifications will necessarily vary greatly. The integration of the seven armed forces into the South African National Defence Force affected the resources (human, capital and technological) of the South African National Defence Force. The workforce increased from 88 000 to 122 000, which further added to the already diverse workforce. On the one hand, the increased workforce enlarged the competency base, and the abilities and skills that management can utilise.

**FIGURE 1.5: INTEGRATED ARMED FORCES INCORPORATED INTO ARMS OF SERVICE**

**SOURCE: DEPARTMENT OF DEFENCE INTERNAL COMMUNICATION BULLETIN (1995:1-2)**

<b>Arm of Service</b>	<b>Non-Statutory Forces</b>	<b>Former Homelands (TBVC)</b>
SA Army	15 079 (92%)	10 323 (93%)
SA Air Force	161 (1%)	291 (2,6%)
SA Navy	272 (2%)	0 (0%)
SA Medical Service	875 (5%)	425 (3%)
Other	63 (1%)	0 (0%)

But on the other hand, the increased workforce added to the cultural complexity of the South African National Defence Force, which made provision for norms, values and traditions that had previously not been provided for. A large percentage of the workforce needed to be trained and developed in order to contribute towards productivity. The increased workforce also affected human resource planning, succession planning and human resource utilisation. The resignation of thousands of professional managers and leaders (across the management hierarchy), left a large void in the leadership milieu, which could only be filled in time.

The increased workforce of the South African National Defence Force required a bigger budget, but since the social needs of South Africa exceeded the current national budget, this left the government with no option but to cut the defence budget. Budget constraints means reducing capital expenditure and extending the life cycle of armament. Therefore, the South African National Defence Force had



to use obsolete armament, equipment and technology to achieve its goals and objectives. New technology, equipment and armament are needed to increase employees' efficiency, effectiveness and performance, which will enhance the South African National Defence Force's productivity.

The South African National Defence Force classified the integrated forces into two groups: the Statutory Forces and Non-Statutory Forces. This created further division in the already politically and culturally divided workforce. The Statutory Forces were former South African Defence Force and Homeland members (see Figure 1.1). They viewed themselves as professional and elevated themselves above the Non-Statutory Force employees. However, both Statutory Force and Non-Statutory Force employees are part of the integrated South African National Defence Force. The workforce should be made aware that integration means the integration of abilities, competencies, experiences, personalities, cultures, training, development, performance, productivity, and leadership approaches.

Prior to 1994 the employees were exposed to apartheid. Apartheid referred to an era in South African history when racial segregation was institutionalised. It created a privileged white class and disadvantaged blacks class. These race groups had different approaches to their work, that is, whites were trained and developed and used their potential to increase their performance, while blacks were underdeveloped and underutilised. These differences influence their respective contribution towards productivity. Supervisors should therefore treat all subordinates the same, recognising differences and responding to those differences in ways that will ensure subordinate retention and increased productivity. At the same time, supervisors should not discriminate against subordinates. The integration provided the South African National Defence Force with increase human resource potential that could contribute towards productivity. It also provided the South African National Defence Force with a workforce that could serve the different communities. It will therefore require the Statutory Force employees to serve as mentors to Non-Statutory Force employees to assist and



coach them to increase their performance. Increased productivity can only be achieved when the entire workforce contributes towards it.

These differences influenced the productivity and military professionalism of the South African National Defence Force. Therefore, increased productivity in the South African National Defence Force depends on the combined effort, energies, competencies, skills and optimal utilisation of all employees. Management should capitalise on the strengths of all employees. The effective management of the South African National Defence Force depends on the training and development of employees and the competency and professionalism of managers and leaders (as discussed in Chapters 3, 5 and 7). Professional leaders are needed to manage the resources of the South African National Defence Force to achieve the organisation's goals and objectives. The South African National Defence Force has to create an organisational culture within which Statutory Force and Non-Statutory Force employees can harmoniously work together to achieve organisational goals and objectives. The organisation's culture should also provide a better work life for all employees. Policies and practices should be instituted that guarantee equal opportunities and fair treatment of all employees.

For the South African National Defence Force to achieve its mandate and manage the above challenges require physical and human resources. The relative "peaceful period" that the South African National Defence Force would experience and government's social programmes compelled an initial reduction of the defence budget. It meant that the South African National Defence Force had to continue using ageing armament and technology. The South African National Defence Force was therefore unable to acquire sophisticated armament and technology and had to focus on a lesser cost intensive challenge, its human resources.

The South African National Defence Force realised that it had to capitalise on the strengths and

potential of each employee in order to achieve its strategic goals. Therefore, all employees should be trained, developed and motivated to increase their performance and productivity. Special attention should be given to the training and development of disadvantaged employees, particularly leaders. The South African National Defence Force needs competent and professional leaders to effectively manage its resources. Special programmes should be instituted to accommodate disadvantaged employees. This will enable them to contribute toward productivity and compete with their white counterparts for senior positions. Mentorship and fast-tracking should be used as affirmative action tools to enhance the career development of disadvantaged employees. However, all employees should have access to the organisation's resources to enable them to achieve organisational and individual goals and objectives. The employees should have equal opportunities to achieve self-actualisation. Trained and competent employees should be staffed in appropriate positions, where they can use their competencies and skills to increase productivity.

Management should not only motivate employees to maintain a high level of productivity, but should also reward them accordingly. Employees should know that they are valued by, and belong to, the South African National Defence Force. Management should treat them with dignity, respect and fairness. They should provide a working environment where cultural tolerance is practiced and where employees uphold military traditions, norms and values, yet are proud of their cultural uniqueness.

The above factors serve as measurements for determining the level of productivity in the South African National Defence Force and are discussed in Chapters 2, 3, 4, 5 and 7. Table 2.1 depicts a productivity index, which can be used to determine the level of productivity in an organisation. Table 7.1 serves as the measurement to determine the level of productivity in the South African National Defence Force. Table 8.1 depicts a comparison of the measurement of productivity as prescribed by the literature (see Table 2.1) and results found in the case analysis (see Table 7.1). The



results of Table 8.1 are the culmination of the organisation's resources used to increase productivity. The complexity of this is discussed in the problem statement below.

### **1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Is the South African National Defence Force effective and will it exceed the productivity and military professionalism of the former South African Defence Force? The integration process united the seven armed forces into the larger, more diverse workforce of the South African National Defence Force. This diverse workforce has a wider spectrum of abilities, competencies, personalities and skills, which can be used to solve complex problems, produce better goods and services, improve performance and increase productivity. The diverse workforce is therefore more efficient, effective, industrious and productive. The Statutory Force employees are qualified and competent, with adequate experience, while the Non-Statutory Force employees are being trained and developed. The difference in performance and productivity between the Statutory and Non-Statutory Forces can be overcome by training, development, motivation and effective human resource management. The majority of leaders and managers have experience in managing a diverse workforce. However, they should be trained to manage, motivate and treat the entire workforce the same. Management should create an organisational culture and working environment where the organisation's resources can be optimally utilised to increase productivity.

The arms procurement programme is means of replacing the obsolete armament and technology of the South Africa National Defence Force with sophisticated armament and technology. It provides the South Africa National Defence Force with capabilities of being a professional and formidable force south of the Sub-Sahara. It provides the ideal reason to effectively train the entire workforce. It can also be used to deal with the negative consequences of affirmative action. The commitment,



dedication and determination of leaders, managers and employees will make the management of the South African National Defence Force toward increased productivity a reality. Thus, the South African National Defence Force can exceed the productivity and military professionalism of the former South African Defence Force.

#### **1.4 GOAL OF THE STUDY**

The goal of this study is to analyse how the management of an integrated South African National Defence Force can effectively accomplish increased productivity and exceed the productivity and military professionalism of the former South African Defence Force.

#### **1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

To achieve the goal of the study the following factors are explored:

- The integrated workforce should be effectively managed. This enables management to capitalise on employees abilities, competencies and skills and to optimally utilise them. The diverse workforce can draw from a wide spectrum of qualifications, interest, experiences, competencies, personalities and skills to improve their performance and increase productivity. This makes the diverse workforce more industrious, effective and efficient.
- To achieve increased productivity the diverse workforce should be motivated to ensure that they are totally committed to contribute toward productivity. Motivation also means that management should appraise and reward employees according to their performance.

- An organisational culture should be created to encourage and stimulate employees to achieve self-actualisation and organisational goals and objectives.
- The South African National Defence Force's resources should be available to all employees, and management should encourage employees to use opportunities to improve themselves.
- To assist the disadvantaged employees, management should implement affirmative action and equal opportunities. This will indicate management's determination to break the bondage of apartheid and move into a new era.
- The workforce should be introduced to productivity. The various meanings and applications of productivity should be explained, and mechanisms should be implemented to determine the performance of employees and measure productivity. A productivity index should be implemented to measure productivity and determine the extent to which the independent variables (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture) influence productivity. Management should be trained to use managerial techniques that can improve employees' performance and increase productivity. Management should discuss these techniques with the employees and explain the benefits of productivity to them.

## **1.6 OUTLINE OF STUDY**

In chapter 1 the background and outline of the study is discussed. It mentions the goal and objectives that will be discussed and the scope of the study. It presents two set of variables that are explored in the dissertation.



Chapter 2 focuses the meaning of productivity and alludes to the resources that influence productivity. The chapter introduces the physical and human resource variables, which are needed to influence productivity. More emphasis is placed on human resource variables, discussed in detail in chapters 3, 4, and 5 respectively, because human resources add value to the other resources by using them to produce consumable goods and services. It shows that physical variables are needed to increase productivity (discussed in Chapter 6). The chapter furthermore provides a productivity index, which can be used to assess the level of productivity in an organisation from a human resource management perspective.

Chapter 3 deals with the first independent human resource variable, human resource management. The chapter discusses the contributions of human resource planning, human resource development and managing diversity toward effective human resource management. Internal and external changes in organisations have resulted in a more holistic approach to human resource management. These changes include information technology, which provides new ways of working and sources of sustainable competitive advantage. Managers recognise that the labour market from which they recruit their employees is diverse. Human resource management matches employees' potential with the job requirements, and appoints the most competent employees to the appropriate positions.

Chapter 4 explores the second independent human resource variable, motivation. It focuses on the different motivation techniques, which can be used to motivate employees to achieve beyond what is expected or required of them. The chapter also discusses performance appraisal, used to encourage achievers to maintain excellent performance and motivate poor achievers to improve their performance.

In chapter 5, the third independent human resource variable, organisational culture is discussed. It



also focuses on leadership as an independent subsection. It considers the necessity of organisational culture as a foundation to create an organisational environment that is conducive to inter-cultural learning, the improvement of employees' performance and accomplishment of increased productivity. The chapter also discusses the leadership approaches that are necessary to create an organisational culture and to manage and motivate employees during transformation. The chapter discusses military leadership and the challenges that confront it.

Chapter 6 looks at the influence of racial and social discrimination in the South African National Defence Force. It shows how discriminatory laws, policies and practices deprived disadvantaged employees from development, utilisation and corporate advancement. It shows that affirmative action can improve the conditions of the disadvantaged employees. The chapter also argues that managing diversity is a means of empowering a diverse workforce to increase their performance and productivity, because they can draw from a vast spectrum of abilities, competencies, experiences, and skills. Lastly, the chapter focuses on the physical variables that enhances performance and productivity.

Chapter 7 presents the case analysis and discusses the South African National Defence Force's approach to productivity and the effective use of its human resources to accomplish increased productivity. The chapter also provides a productivity index, which is a comparison of theory with practice. The productivity index determines the level of productivity in the South African National Defence Force. The information collected during the interviews is also mentioned here.

In chapter 8, the findings of the study show that the management of the South African National Defence Force for productivity from a human resource management perspective can be a reality.

The human resource variables (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture) can be manipulated to influence the dependent variable (productivity).

In chapter 9 the recommendations of the study is discussed. The human resource variables can influence productivity provided they are effectively managed by management. Productivity is a process and takes years before the results become evident.

Chapter 10, the final chapter, emphasises how the human resource variables influence the management of the South African National Defence Force toward increased productivity.

## 1.7 METHOD OF RESEARCH

The study is divided into three parts: literature study, which is discussed in Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5, the operationalisation, which is dealt with in Chapters 6, and 7, and the findings, recommendations and conclusion, in Chapters 8, 9 and 10 respectively. The following research techniques were applied in the study:

- **Personal interviews:** These were conducted with top and senior officers from: Western Cape Command, South African Army Head Quarters, South African Air Force Head Quarters, South African Medical and Health Services Head Quarters, Defence Head Quarters and Secretary for Defence. These officers (see reference) are experts in their fields. They were 10 white men, 7 black men, 4 white women and 1 black women.
- **Observation study:** The author visited various military institutions in Western Cape Command, Eastern Cape Command, Durban, Bloemfontein and Pretoria to observe how management implemented the new policies. The author observed the effect of these policies



on employees and how employees responded to them. The author also received information from the interviewees who served on different task teams.

- **Content analysis:** A literature study of the theories of the dependent variable (productivity) and independent variables (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture), as well as factors illustrated in Figure 1.2, were made. The relevant documentation pertaining to the case study was obtained and analysed, and interviews were conducted with appropriate top and seniors officers of the South African National Defence Force to explain and elaborate on certain subjects. An analysis of the application of productivity in the South African National Defence Force was conducted. It was compared with the theoretical concepts of productivity to determine the feasibility of managing the South African National Defence Force for productivity from a human resource management perspective.

## **1.8 SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

The study focuses on one dependent and three independent variables (see Figure 1.3). The South African National Defence Force was selected as the focus of research because: (1) it represents a diverse employees from all strata of society; (2) it has a large percentage of disadvantaged employees who integrated into the South African National Defence Force; (3) it is a workforce that is needed to ensure stability where political, social and economic transactions can take place. During the time of this research it was difficult to obtain access to certain information because it was classified. However, interviews (conducted between 1997 to 2001) with prominent top executive and senior management assisted to overcome some problems.



## 1.9 CONCLUSION

The military capabilities, ageing armament, equipment and technology are no longer effective for operational use and therefore do not allow the South African National Defence Force to effectively achieve its mandate and military strategies. The physical variables are needed to optimise the military capability. However, the human resource variables are needed to create an environment in which employees can be trained, developed, motivated and optimally utilised to increase their performance and productivity. The human resource variables empower employees with competencies and skills that are needed to operate and manage the physical variables.

The human resource variables (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture) are discussed in Chapters 3, 4 and 5 respectively. The physical variables are alluded to in Chapters 2 and 6.

The next chapter deals with the theories of productivity.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **THEORIES OF PRODUCTIVITY**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapter 1 explored the integration of the seven armed forces into the South African National Defence Force. It mentioned the challenges that confront the leadership of the South African National Defence Force in managing the human resources of the South African National Defence Force to achieve increased productivity. Chapter 1 also dealt with the background of the study and the question whether the South African National Defence Force will exceed the military professionalism and productivity of the former South African Defence Force. The chapter also highlighted the three human resource variables (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture), which management should use to create an organisational environment in which employees can be managed and motivated to increase their performance and thus enhance productivity.

Since the beginning of the twentieth century, humanity has been increasing the output of production. Concern for performance and increased productivity have characterised the latter part of the twentieth century, and continues to do so during the twenty-first century. Initially, productivity was the concern of national economists. This concern has expanded to include business managers, public administrators, politicians and behavioural scientists. The interest in increased productivity stems from the desires, demands, needs and wants of an ever-increasing population, and an improvement in the standard of living and quality of life. This is also true for the South African National Defence Force. The South African National Defence Force's involvement in the sub-continent necessitates a change in mission, which requires sophisticated armament and technology and training of soldiers in peace-keeping missions. Productivity is a

dependent variable that is affected by the macro-environment and micro-environment. Productivity is influenced by physical and human resource variables. This chapter alludes to the physical resources, but focuses on the human resources because the current trend is toward better use of physical variables through human resources. Human resources have a greater influence on productivity than the other resources have, because it is the only resource that adds value to the other resources. It uses the other resources to produce consumable goods and services. Human resources use effort and energy to increase performance, which in turn enhances productivity (Hersey et al. 2001:346-347; Gaither and Fraizer, 2002:701-703; Storey, 2001:191-192).

This study focuses on the human resource variables that influence productivity. In the chapters that follow, the three human resource variables will be explored. This chapter explores the historical origins of the concern for productivity; it then analyses productivity as a concept and as a consequence of physical variables and human resource variables. Finally, it also explores productivity as human resource oriented measurable instrument. Figure 2.1 illustrates the logical progression of the chapter.

## **2.2 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW**

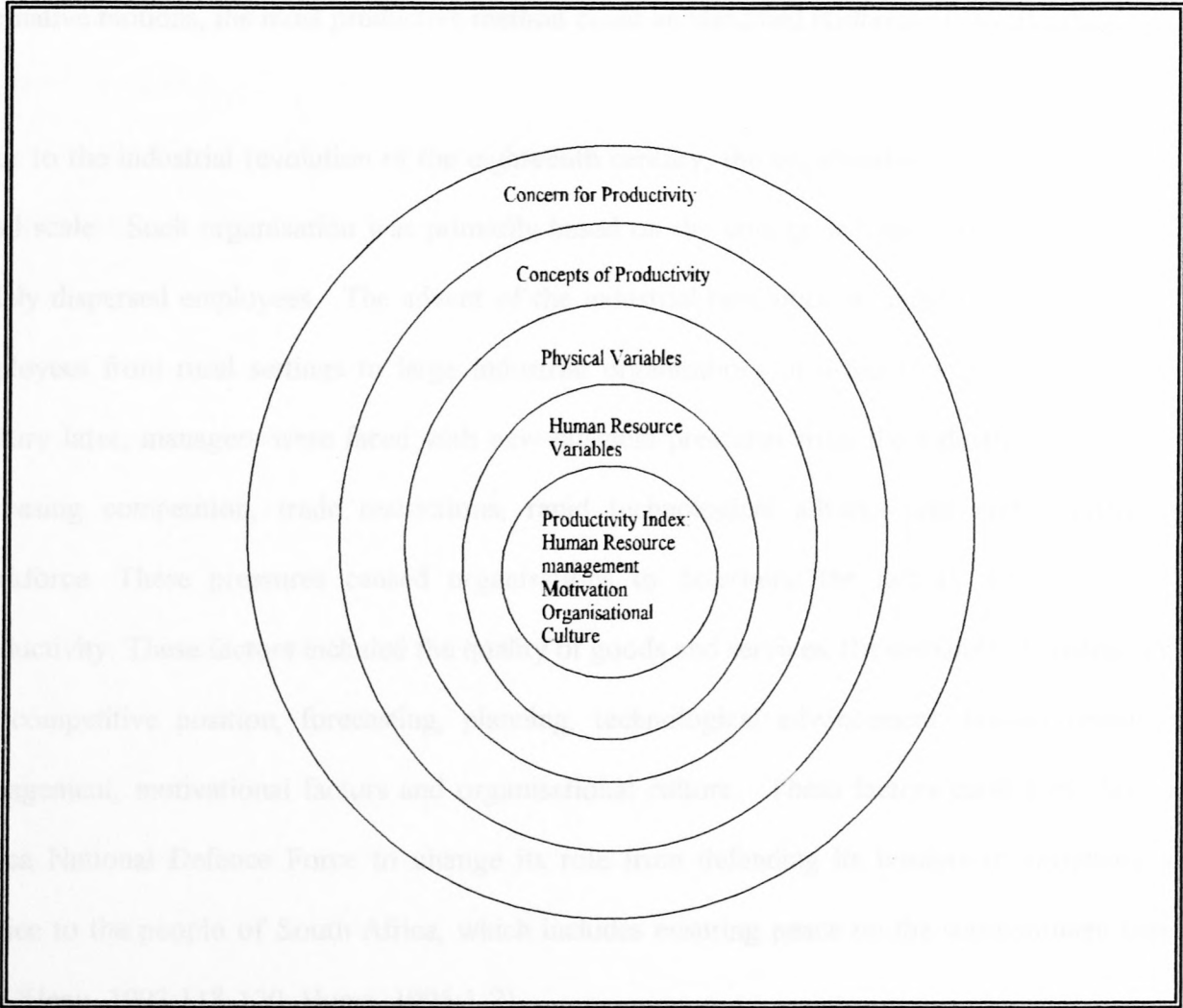
Methods to invigorate the industrial work environment by applying scientific developments got underway in the late nineteenth century with the work of Taylor and Gilbrecht. Taylor, the originator of time study, held that scientific management improves the method of doing work and the time it takes to complete a particular job. Taylor stated that employees possess specialised knowledge that they have gained through experience, which may not be possessed by managers (Taylor, 1972:4).

For this reason managers should involve employees in the decision-making processes. This



FIGURE 2.1:      APPROACH TO PRODUCTIVITY

SOURCE:            Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005



marked the beginning of job design to determine the elements of the employee's job scientifically, and thereby set the ground work for increased productivity. It fostered cooperation between management and the workforce to achieve organisational goals and objectives in accordance with scientific methods, and the equal division of labour between management and employees (Lehrer, 1982:18; Storey, 2001:345-346).

Gilbreth, the originator of motion study, in turn focused on rationalisation of work methods. He observed that employees use different methods for accomplishing similar tasks. By studying the alternative motions, the most productive method could be identified (Gilbreth, 1911:36-38).

Prior to the industrial revolution of the eighteenth century, the organisation of labour was on a small scale. Such organisation was primarily based on the cottage industries with networks of widely dispersed employees. The advent of the industrial revolution initiated the movement of employees from rural settings to large industrial organisations in urban towns and cities. A century later, managers were faced with new business pressures from the industrialised world: increasing competition, trade restrictions, rapid technological advancement and a growing workforce. These pressures caused organisations to determine the factors that influenced productivity. These factors included the quality of goods and services, the demands of customers, the competitive position, forecasting, planning, technological advancement, human resource management, motivational factors and organisational culture. These factors caused the South Africa National Defence Force to change its role from defending its borders to providing a service to the people of South Africa, which includes ensuring peace on the sub-continent (see 1.2) (Heap, 1992:118-120; Hume, 1995:1-2).

During the early part of the twentieth century, many manufacturing institutions implemented programmes of time and motion study to ensure that efficient work methods were applied to

establish performance standards. Performance is influenced by the length of time it takes to accomplish a particular work task when using a specific job method with the appropriate support mechanisms (software and hardware). Scientific developments have since been used by industrial engineers to increase productivity in the industrial sphere. These theories made employees aware of how they could benefit from increased productivity. Employees were encouraged to use their competencies, intelligence, personality, skills and experience to improve their performance. The trend of the workforce to increase productivity took various forms. This stems from the view that there is always a better way to do a job. The systematic and orderly approach to solve work problems yields better results than the haphazard or inspirational approach. This negates the clichés “it cannot be done” or “this is the way it has always been done.” A mind shift and positive attitude should be cultivated in finding the necessary facts and exploring alternative work methods (Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:4-5; Campbell and Campbell, 1990:19-20).

The next section discusses the concept of productivity that focuses on the meaning of productivity and the variables that influence it. It discusses how an imbalance in the variables affects the outcome of productivity.

## **2.3 CONCEPT OF PRODUCTIVITY**

The previous section focused on how scientific management was used to measure employees' performance and production. The industrial revolution changed management's view of productivity and their attitude toward the workforce. This section explores the meanings of productivity and the outcome thereof.

Productivity is a measure of the amount of goods or services produced in a time period, divided by the amount of resources required. Productivity of each resource should be measured. For



example, measures of the following could be used to determine productivity in a time period: capital, the number of goods produced divided by assets value; material, the number of goods produced divided by rands spent on material; direct labour, the number of goods produced divided by direct labour-hour; and overhead, the number of goods produced divided by rands spent on overhead. Scarcity of production input affects production directly and the optimum utilisation of resources that are scarce and relatively costly. It therefore makes a significant impact on productivity (Campbell and Campbell, 1990:20; Gaither, 1992:587; Gaither and Frazier, 1999:583-584).

These measures of productivity are simplistic because they are output oriented and ignore both the context and outcome that are, the effect and impact of production. It nevertheless provides a starting point for determining productivity so that managers can be aware of productivity trends. Thus productivity could be viewed as a multifactor perspective, which is a composite measure of labour, capital, energy and materials resources (Gaither, 1992:587; Gaither and Frazier, 1999:584). This is supported by the total-factor and partial-factor concept of productivity. The total-factor concept of productivity encompasses the total resources that are used to increase productivity. It focuses on increasing the efficiency of transformation of production input into consumable output. The partial-factor concept of productivity in turn focuses on the effect that a single resource has on the output of productivity. It is crucial for when a decision should be made about which resources to be used or when decisions are made about what at percentage of a particular resource should be used (Campbell and Campbell, 1990:20; Gaither, 1992:587; Gaither and Frazier, 1999:583-584).

Productivity can also be expressed as a formula. The formulae below provide insight into the different equations that can be used to calculate productivity:

$$\text{Productivity} = \frac{\text{Quantity of products or services produced}}{\text{Amount of resources used}}$$

(Gaither and Fraizer, 2002:698)

$$\text{Productivity} = \frac{\text{Outputs of goods and services}}{\text{Inputs in resources needed to produce}}$$

(Cronje et al. 2001:482)

According to the formulae, there are two aspects to the productivity equation: the amount of production and the amount of resources used to produce it. Productivity varies with the output relative to the input of resources used. This means all factors of inputs (physical and human resource variables) and outputs (units of specific goods or services, change in quality levels, social benefits or costs) should be measured. Therefore, the measurement of productivity is a multifactor approach; it is influenced by other factors and also influences the output and benefits of those factors as stated above. However, in practice, productivity measurement is done in economic terms, normalised per work-hour or in terms of gross national product per capita or per employee (Cronje et al. 2001:482-483; Gaither, 1992:587; Gaither and Frazier, 2002:698-699; Heap, 1992:3-4).

The employees' performance contributes toward the achievement of increased productivity. Performance is the accomplishment, execution and or working out of anything ordered or undertaken. This means that performance is about outputs/outcomes (accomplishment); it is about doing the work as well as it is about the achievement of results. Performance could therefore be regarded as behaviour and outcome – the way in which organisations get work done and the results achieved. Performance is the outcome of work because it provides the strongest linkage to the strategic goals of the organisation, customer satisfaction and economic contribution (Armstrong, 2002:3-4; Spangenberg, 1994:26-28; Williams, 2002:14-15).



Performance can be expressed as follows:

$$A = \frac{(P + T) M}{E} = R$$

The A represents the abilities one expects someone to have when he or she is appointed as discussed in 3.4. The P represents the performance of employees. Performance is those duties the employees are paid to do, in order to achieve a desired result. The T represents training and orientation (as discussed in 3.4), which take place by various means of communication (telling, demonstrating and role-playing), with the hope of increasing performance. The M represents motivation (as discussed in 4.2), which is the driving force of the employees and improves their performance. The E represents external influences, which are obstacles to performance and productivity. The R represents results. From the discussion it is obvious that performance is the employees' output, or their productivity. In this study, performance therefore refers to the employees' productivity (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:311-313, 322; Fisher, 1996:134-135; Fournies, 1978:88-90).

Thus far, productivity was viewed in terms of output only. However, the success of any organisation depends on the effective and efficient utilisation of its resources. Efficiency is a measure of output divided by input as was explained above. Effectiveness is the relationship of output to some standard or outcome. Therefore, efficiency is a measurement of how well the organisation uses its resources to produce its goods or services, and effectiveness is a measurement of how well the organisation is reaching its goals. Efficiency is the rate of conversion of the resources being used; it is maintaining a satisfactory relationship between tangible costs and immediate benefits. Efficiency is the amount of input that is used to produce the desired output. The level of productivity depends on the efficiency of the workforce, which is the optimal utilisation of employees. Management should capitalise on employees' competencies, education, training, personalities and experiences. Effectiveness is doing the right



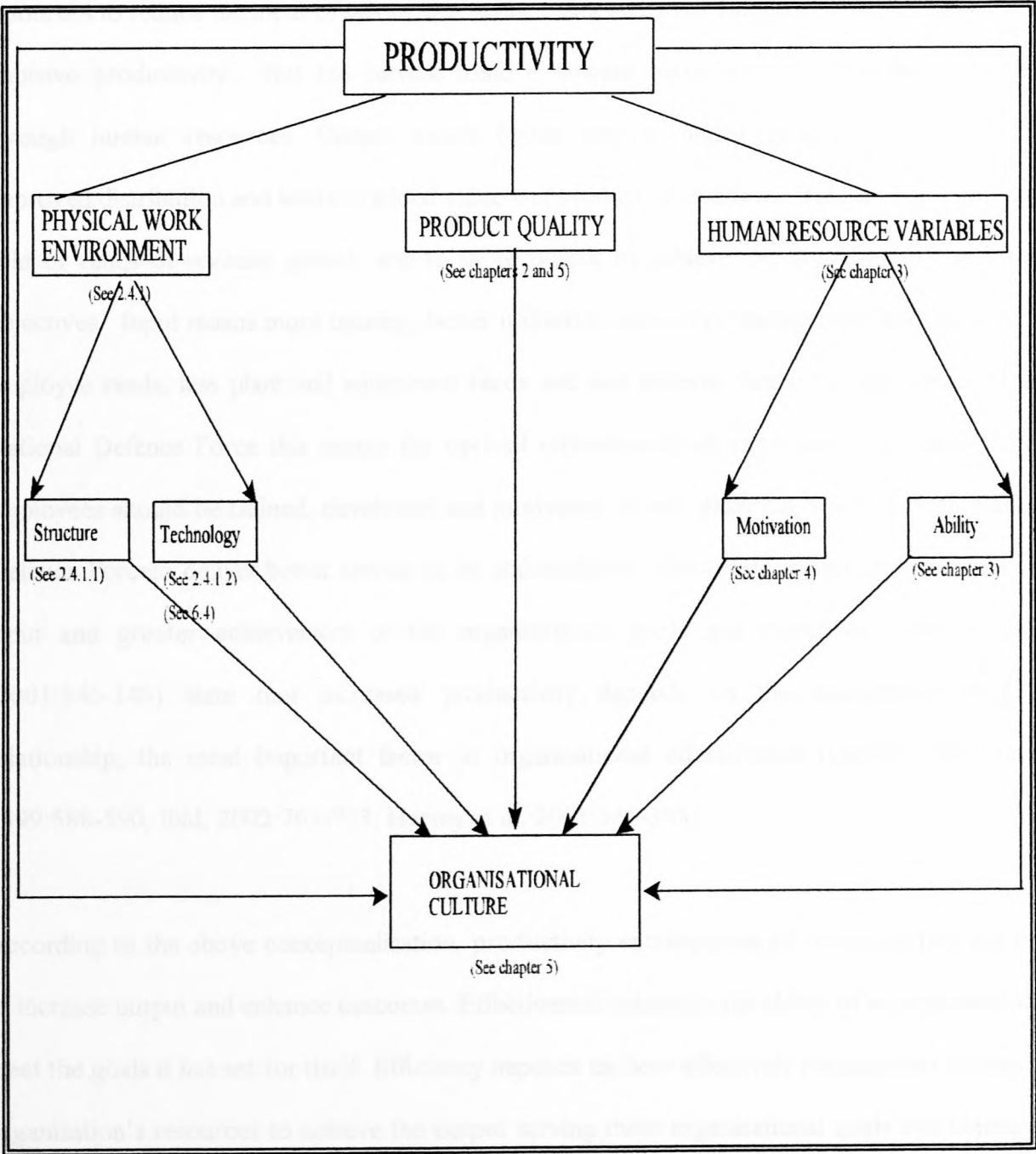
thing right. The effectiveness of the workforce determines their level of productivity in support of organisational goals and objectives (see 2.5.1) (Gaither, 1992:588-589; Gaither and Frazier, 1999:585-586; Pitchard, 1990:8).

Figure 2.2 shows four major factors that affect productivity: the physical work environment, human resource variables, product quality and organisational culture. The physical work environment creates the work conditions and provides the structure, technology (see 6.4), machines, tools and work methods that support and assist employees to improve their performance. The physical work environment should also provide conditions (sport and recreational) that ensure the physical fitness and health of employees. If these conditions are not available, then managers should encourage employees to join physical fitness centres. Staff groups, such as industrial, products and systems engineering, strive to develop better automation, machine tools and work methods to enhance productivity. The quality of production reduces defects, scraps and reworks processes and has systems in place to increase the factors of production. Human resource process is a complex factor because of a diverse workforce (Gaither and Frazier, 2002:702-704).

Employees have different personalities, interests, ambitions, competencies, skills, energy levels, education, training and experiences. Motivation (discussed in Chapter 4) is the energiser that assists managers to optimally utilise the abilities, competencies and skills of each employee. It is crucial for managers to know the different abilities, competencies and skills of employees, so that they can match employees' abilities, competencies and skills to the job requirements; appoint the most competent employees to the most appropriate positions; and train and develop employees to fill future human resource requirements. All these factors are influenced by the organisation's culture (discussed in Chapter 5) and takes place within the environment thereof (Carrell et al. 1997:122-123; Gaither, 1992:588-589; Gaither and Frazier, 1999:588-590; Ibid, 2002:701-703;

FIGURE 2.2:                   VARIABLES AFFECTING PRODUCTIVITY

SOURCE:                   ADAPTED FROM GAITHER AND FRAZIER (2002:702)





Pitchard, 1990:8).

According to Hersey et al. (2001:346-348) productivity has focused on technology and capital resources to reduce the input of labour cost while using industrial engineering techniques to improve productivity. But the current trend is toward better use of the potential available through human resources. Output means better service, higher quality, better marketing, improved distribution and leads to added value and product innovations. This leads to more units sold or rands of revenue gained, and to more output to achieve the organisation's goals and objectives. Input means more training, better utilisation, inventory management and leads to less employee rands, less plant and equipment rands and less material rands. For the South African National Defence Force this means the optimal utilisation of all employees. It means that all employees should be trained, developed and motivated. It will allow the South African National Defence Force to deliver better service to its stakeholders. These lead to less resource loss, less input and greater achievement of the organisation's goals and objectives. Hersey et al. (2001:346-348) state that increased productivity depends on the management-employee relationship, the most important factor in organisational effectiveness (Gaither and Frazier, 1999:588-590; Ibid, 2002:701-703; Hersey et al. 2001:346-348).

According to the above conceptualisation, productivity encompasses all resources that are used to increase output and enhance outcomes. Effectiveness relates to the ability of an organisation to meet the goals it has set for itself. Efficiency depends on how effectively management utilises the organisation's resources to achieve the output serving these organisational goals and objectives. Productivity increases are noteworthy only in so far as they contribute to the achievement of organisational goals and objectives. Thus management should create a work place that stimulates organisational culture by providing technology that increases the production of goods and



services, and by training, developing, motivating and optimally utilising the workforce to improve their performance and increase productivity. Productivity, in the context of this study, is defined as the total input of resources used to produce total output. Thus, improving productivity means increasing production through effective utilisation of the organisation's resources. It increases the organisation's efficiency, effectiveness, competitiveness, output and profit. However, the outcome of productivity is enjoyed by all the stakeholders who invested in it.

The next subsection discusses how the various stakeholders benefit from productivity.

### **2.3.1 Outcome of Productivity**

The previous subsection focused on the meaning of productivity. It stated that productivity is the inputs (resources) needed to produce outputs (goods and services). This means that productivity varies with the output relative to the input of resources used. This subsection explains the benefits to and consequences of productivity for stakeholders. It discusses reasons why certain stakeholders benefit more than others.

#### **2.3.1.1 Benefits of productivity**

Productivity has a major influence on human life. Its effects can be felt at various levels: national, industrial, organisational and individual. At national level productivity is related to necessary economic outcomes. For the South African National Defence Force it means achieving its primary mission, of defending the sovereignty and territorial integrity of the Republic of South Africa. Productivity growth is a needed factor in controlling inflation. In a market economy, the prices paid for products are determined largely by the costs of inputs (such as labour, energy and

raw material) used to produce the goods and the profit margin of the producer. There is a constant upward pressure on the cost of these inputs. If the profit margin is relatively constant over time, then increases in the cost of the inputs should be offset by increases in productivity. More output should be produced with the same, or more expensive input. If the increases in the costs of inputs are not offset, the prices of the same goods should go up and inflation occurs. If higher wages are achieved without increased productivity, the cost of the goods goes up, increasing inflation. If wages increase with a corresponding increase in productivity, then inflation does not increase. Thus, productivity is perceived to be responsible for the increase in real income and is seen to influence the real cost of goods (Gaither and Frazier, 1999:589-592; Pritchard, 1990:4; Thompson and Strickland, 2003:421-425, 409-411).

According to Heap, (1992:6-7) productivity also increases the quality of life. The bigger the economic pie, the greater the number of participants that may partake of it. However, without productivity, the economic pie remains the same size. Therefore, certain demands can only be met by sacrificing others. Productivity creates finances to continue the growth of the economic pie. Therefore, the size of each slice can increase without taking resources away from one entity to give to another. Productivity creates vast distribution networks, such as labour, products and services, which result in increased employment, increased economic stability and increased economic opportunity for society. This means that productivity is a way of improving a nation's balance of payment, of controlling inflation and raising the standard of living. Productivity stimulate economic security by creating more and better jobs. Productivity allows the South African National Defence Force to achieve its secondary functions by creating a safer environment in which political and economic transactions can take place (Pearson, 1991:145; Thompson and Strickland, 2003:378-379).



Productivity enables organisations to produce goods and services at lower costs, thus making those goods and services more competitive because they can be sold at lower prices to consumers. This enables organisations to increase their market share by attracting more consumers. Productivity fosters innovation between management and employees. It prompts (encourages) management to use contemporary styles of leadership to create an organisational culture that enhances excellent performance. Productivity increases the effectiveness of accomplishing work, while reducing the actual cost of the work and making more goods or services available to consumers. This increases the demand for goods and services and subsequently provides more work to organisations. The increase in consumer spending results in increase in demand for goods and services, which in turns increases profits. Greater profits enable organisations to invest in capital goods that expand their business (Campbell and Campbell, 1990:163-164; Hall, 1992:13; Katz, 1997:74-75).

According to Katz, (1997:443-448) productivity creates an environment for better supervisor-subordinate relationship; management should therefore involve employees in productivity activities, measurement and methods. This enables employees to accept ownership for productivity goals and outcome. Productivity positively influences employees' behaviour, which is evident in decreased absenteeism, grievances and labour turnover. It provides employees with opportunities to develop and practice their abilities, skills and competencies to improve their performance; to creatively solve work problems and stimulate job interests and satisfaction. It empowers employees to control their jobs (to be more efficient and effective) and increase the quality of work-life through better use of their time. This allows soldiers more time for rehearsing before operations and less time debriefing about mistakes that could be avoided (Johnson and Redmond, 1998:61; Pritchard, 1990:5-6).



Productivity benefits all stakeholders who invest in it. The employer-employee relationship creates a mutual understanding between management and employees. Participative problem solving consolidates the relationship between management and employees, and enhances communication within the organisation. The employees know that management makes time to listen to them and to appreciate their ideas. Employees accept co-ownership of productivity and enjoy the benefits (intrinsic and extrinsic rewards) thereof. Performance rewards are therefore less important in the overall scheme of things. Productivity increases the output and quality of goods and services, which increases profit and expands capital investment. Productivity also encourages employees to achieve personal goals, objectives, self-actualisation and improve their social status and quality of life. Productivity also has negative consequences that are discussed below.

#### **2.3.1.2 Consequences of productivity**

According to Carroll and Buchholtz, (2003:244-245) productivity has certain disadvantages which are not immediately noticeable. They only become evident in later years. Productivity requires larger and greater consumption of natural resources to accommodate the needs and wants of society. The earth has limited resources and current trends of exploiting these resources (such as coal, oil, minerals) could mean that societal systems are approaching finite resource limits. During times of high employment, productivity tends to be misused by employers as part of their bargaining power for their staff recruitment, retention and remuneration policy. During times of high unemployment, productivity is viewed by employees as a cause of job losses because more employees are retrenched. Technology reduces the number of employees that are needed to operate certain functions. For example, computers have reduced the amount of time and human resources needed to plan military operations. Industrial machinery has streamlined and simplified

factory operations, and has reduced the number of factory employees. This view of productivity has given rise to a number of myths associated with the concept of productivity. These myths propagate the fact that productivity takes away jobs, increases stress, reduces satisfaction and only benefits employers (Heap, 1992:8; Pritchard, 1990:5).

The next section discusses how the physical and human resource variables influence productivity. The physical variables focus on structure and technology, while the human resource variables focus on human resource management, motivation and organisational culture.

## **2.4 FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE PRODUCTIVITY**

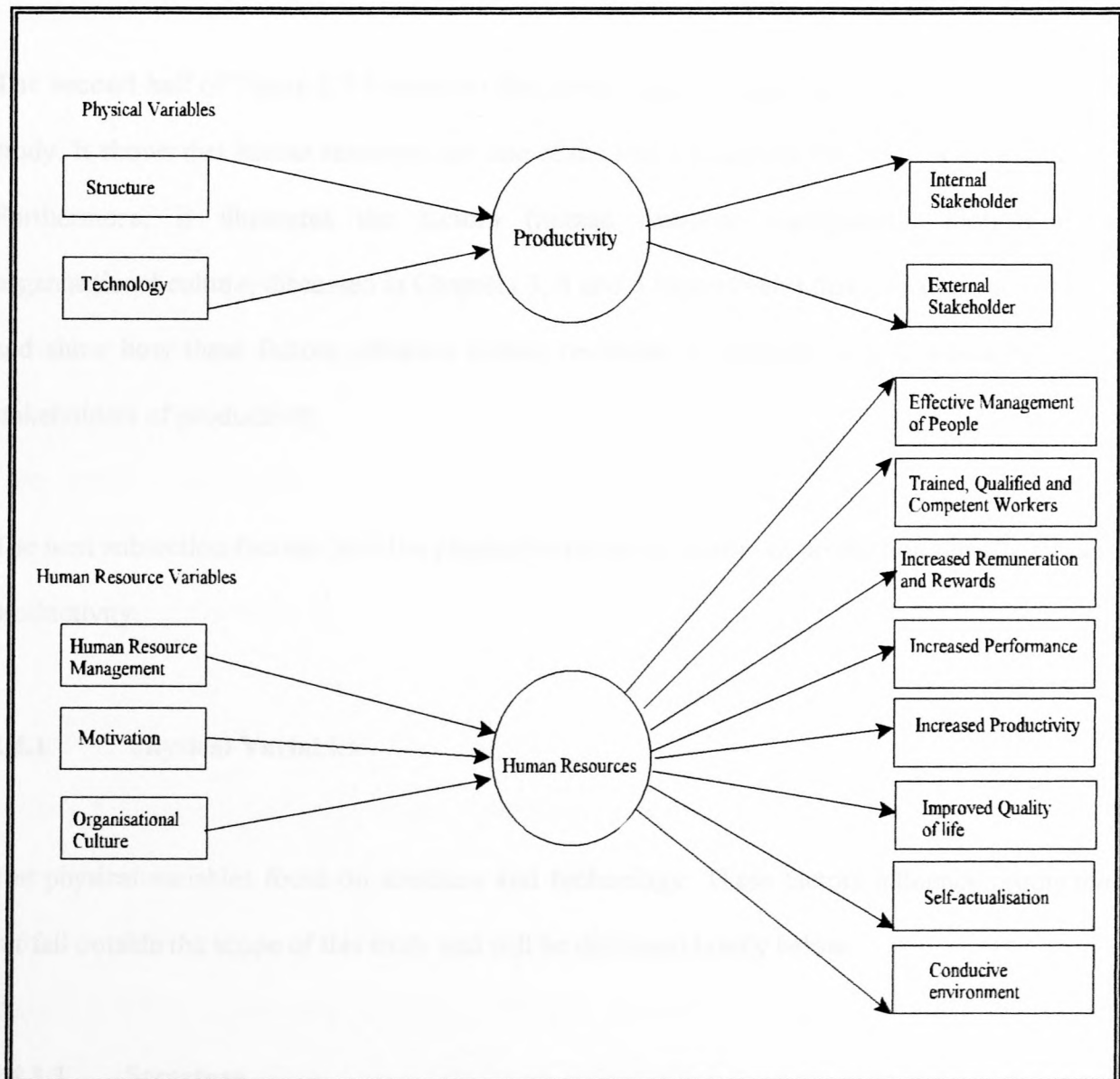
The discussion thus far focused on the evolution of productivity and how the industrial age has given new meaning to productivity. It stated that productivity is the input of resources (human, capital, material, technology and communication), which are used to produce consumable goods and services. It also stated the benefits that stakeholders derive from productivity and ends with the consequences of thereof. This section discusses the physical variables and the human resource variables (see Figure 2.2) that influence productivity. It ends with a productivity index that reflects the human resource variables that can be used to determine the level of productivity.

Figure 2.3 illustrates the resources that influence and the outcome of productivity. The first half of Figure 2.3 illustrates the physical variables (structure and technology) that influence productivity. It shows that the output of productivity influences and benefits internal stakeholders and external stakeholders. The employees enjoy the following benefits: increased remuneration and rewards, self-actualisation, training and development, improved competencies, capabilities and skills. The government improves the standard of living for society. Shareholders receive



FIGURE 2.3: FACTORS AND EFFECTS OF PRODUCTIVITY

SOURCE: Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005





increased profits and expand their investments. Customers receive satisfaction that imply quality, reliability, durability and serviceability of goods and services. These benefits encourage customers to increase their spending in order to satisfy their needs and wants, which translates into increased revenue for businesses (Gaither, 1992:588-589; Gaither and Frazier, 1999:585-586; Beardwell and Holden 2001:511-513; Hersey et al. 2001:12-13, 346-348).

The second half of Figure 2.3 focuses on the human resource variables, which is the core of the study. It shows that human resources are one of the major resources that influences productivity. Furthermore, it illustrates the factors (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture, discussed in Chapters 3, 4 and 5 respectively) that affect human resources and show how these factors influence human resources to produce output, which benefits all stakeholders of productivity.

The next subsection focuses how the physical variables as factors of production directly influence productivity.

#### **2.4.1 Physical Variables**

The physical variables focus on structure and technology. These factors influence productivity but fall outside the scope of this study and will be discussed briefly below.

##### **2.4.1.1 Structure**

Organisational structure is the division of labour, as well as the patterns of coordination, communication, work flow and formal power that direct the organisational activities (McShane

and Von Glinow, 2000:560). Organisational structure is the organisation's framework as expressed by its degree of complexity, formalisation and centralisation (Robbins, 1996:335). Organisational structure reflects the way in which the organisation divides up and coordinates work (Northcraft et al. 1994:565). According to the definitions, an organisation's structure reflects its culture (discussed in Chapter 5), division of work, coordination and power relationships. The latter three factors will be discussed briefly.

Division of labour is the subdivision of work into separate jobs that are assigned to different employees. Work is divided into specialised jobs because it potentially increases the employee's efficiency. The employees can master their tasks quickly because work cycles are very short. Less time is wasted changing from one task to another. Training costs are reduced because employees require fewer physical and mental skills to accomplish the assigned work. Specialisation makes it easier to match employees with specific aptitudes and skills to the jobs for which they are best suited (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:560; Northcraft et al. 1994:565-566; Robbins, 1996:344-345).

Coordinating mechanisms are needed to ensure that employees work in concert to achieve the organisation's goals and objectives. Coordination takes place through formal and informal communication. The formal structure coordinates work through the formal hierarchy. It empowers managers with authority to reassign employees to different work activities and to resolve conflicts by dictating solutions. Informal communication allows considerable flexibility because employees transmit a large volume of information through face-to-face communication and other media channels. Informal communication is the most flexible form of communication, but it can be time-consuming (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:560-563; Robbins, 1996:339-340; Smit et al. 2002:195).



The power relationships in organisations are seen in the span of control, centralisation and formalisation. Span of control is the number of employees reporting directly to the next level in the hierarchy. The number of subordinates reporting to a manager depends on the type of organisational structure and the nature of work. Organisations generally prefer smaller span of control, which varies from 3 to 7 subordinates. This has changed because organisations are reducing the number of managerial positions through downsizing and restructuring, which has increased the span of control. The span of control is in proportion to the height of the organisation or its number of levels: a flat organisation has fewer levels with a wider span of control, while a tall organisation has many levels with a narrow span of control (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:563-565; Northcraft et al. 1994:569-572; Robbins, 1996:340-341; Smit et al. 2002:194).

Centralisation and decentralisation represent a second element of power relationships. Centralisation is the concentration of decision-making authority in upper management. Power is in the hands of a small group of top and senior executives. Centralisation may improve consistency and reduce costs, but it does not reduce flexibility. Decentralisation is the handing down of decision-making authority to lower levels in the organisation. Organisational and environmental complexity compels organisations toward decentralisation. Decentralisation is potentially more entrepreneurial and responsive to the local environment in which organisations operate. Organisational complexity may encourage decentralisation, but other forces push for centralisation. Senior executives try to gain decision-making control during times of turbulence and organisational crisis (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:566-567; Northcraft et al. 1994:567-568; Robbins, 1996:342-343; Smit et al. 2002:199-200).

Formalisation is the last element that represents a power relationship. Formalisation is the degree

to which organisations standardise behaviour through rules, procedures, formal training and related mechanisms. In large organisations formalisation serves as a coordinating mechanism, because direct supervision and informal communication among employees are not as efficient. External influences, such as government safety legislation and strict accounting rules, also encourage formalisation. Formalisation may increase efficiency, but it can also create problems. Rules and procedures reduce organisational flexibility, so employees follow prescribed behaviours even when the situation clearly calls for a critical or extraordinary response (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:567-568; Northcraft et al. 1994:585-586; Robbins, 1996:335).

Structures are essential for the effective operation of the organisation, but communication, which is the aorta through which the organisation communicates with all divisions, departments and sections, is even more important. Both management and employees should be committed to communication. Commitment to communication ensures that the channels of communication are open (downward, upward, lateral and diagonal) and that an effective feedback system is implemented. Communication is the only means through which organisational goals and objectives can be accomplished. Management should establish channels through which employees can communicate their views, feelings, frustration, grievance and opinions (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2003:226; Heap, 1992:147-151; Hersey et al. 2001:296, 365-369; Katz, 1997: 326-327).

Communication is a means of restoring and rebuilding a relationship of respect and trust between supervisors and subordinates. This relationship can be enhanced through an open-door communication policy, which allows employees access to managers. Managers should apply an open-door communication policy but should guard against the disadvantages. The respected manager is the only one who decides which course of action to take. He or she might discuss the



matter with another manager, who may support his or her view. Managers are inclined to make decisions that benefit the organisation rather than the individual employee. Managers should create a work environment where open communication benefits both managers and employees (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:570; Katz, 1997:320-322; Johnson and Redmond, 1998:94-96; Ricketts, 1997:77-80).

Communication between supervisors and subordinates is necessary. The employees need to know what is expected of them and how they are progressing. This can be done through constructive or corrective feedback. The relationship between managers and employees determines the nature of the feedback. Managers should establish a safe and respectful environment for giving and receiving feedback. Managers should ask employees how they would like to receive both constructive and corrective feedback. Managers should minimise employees' discomfort, so that their feedback can maximise employees' motivation. This can be done through a feedback process, which enables managers to ask employees the following questions: How would you prefer to receive your feedback? What specifically would you like to receive feedback on? How can I help you feel comfortable receiving this information? Is there a particular format in which you would like to receive this information? When is the best time to give your feedback? Communication is the only means through which managers can inform and instruct employees of organisational goals, objectives and their intention. It is also the employees' means of giving feedback to management. Feedback according to the above system will motivate (see 2.4.2.2) employees to exert more effort to attain challenging goals. The system provides for regular personalised feedback and uses positive reinforcement to motivate employees to achieve beyond the expected performance. The system strengthens the superior-subordinate relationship and serves as a basis to encourage mutual trust, self-respect and dignity. Management should use communication as a means to motivate employees to improve their

performance (Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:109-111; Katz, 1997:49, 457-458; Ricketts, 1997:98-99).

#### **2.4.1.2 Technology**

According to Carroll and Buchholtz, (2003:243-244); Heap, (1992:76); Katz, (1997:398-402); Thompson and Strickland, (2003:416-418); Stewart, (1997:133-134) and Wild, (1995:150), technological advancement influences the production and marketing of goods and services by using sophisticated machinery, equipment and computers. It provides solutions to repetitive and boring jobs through job automation, which provides opportunities for organisations to revise their own product range to take advantage of technological advancement. Technology increases the performance of employees and keeps them abreast of technological advancement.

Technology enables employees to exchange information and acquire knowledge via the internet. It enables employees to communicate with one another within the organisation, with their colleagues in other organisations and between businesses. It increases the quality and value of goods and services, which enables organisations to maintain a competitive advantage and increase profits. It also provides consumers with more options to choose from (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2003:243-244, 252-253; Heap, 1992:76; Katz, 1997:398-402; Thompson and Strickland, 2003:416-418, 541-542; Stewart, 1997:133-134; Wild, 1995:150).

Technological advancement cannot take place without the most vital physical resource, capital, without which organisations cannot operate. It is the resource that enables management to acquire the other resources (physical and human). It is the cash-generating capability of the organisation since it determines the organisation's ability to pay dividends to shareholders in the



short term, and to reinvest for the future. The public sector equivalent is the need to deliver best value within the financial limits. The sources of capital are important for the following reasons: The cost of capital is a major cost driver and varies with the source. Therefore, the relative cash outflows which result from servicing loans as against equity would be a crucial strategic consideration (Johnson et al. 2002:503-504; Megginson et al. 2003:32; Smit et al. 2002:53, 61).

In order to produce technologically advanced goods, manufacturers require material. Material means raw material, parts, production inventory, stationery, semi-finished goods and finished goods. Material increases its value through streamlined production processes, from raw material to consumable goods. Management has to ensure that sufficient raw materials are available, so that the production department can produce certain quantities of inventory. The just-in-time inventory system is a means to assist management to ensure that sufficient quantities of inventories are available. It prevents over production of goods and the stock of large inventories, which can be expensive. However, just-in-time is not always possible, and extremely high costs may be incurred as a consequence of delays. From a management point of view, the ideal would be the creation of the most economical inventory for the business. This may differ from one business to another (Adendorff et al. 2001:209-210; Heizer et al. 2000:574-575; Longenecker et al. 2003:167).

The cost of the finished products, of which materials make up a large part, is essential for the following reasons: firstly, it serves as a basis for the business to estimate the price of the product it is placing on the market; secondly, only once the cost price of the product is known, is it possible to determine the price at which the product will be sold on the market; thirdly, the purchase and cost price are essential to determine the input and output ratio of the production process and the productivity of the organisation; fourthly, it makes possible the calculation of

inventory holding cost (Adendorff et al. 2001:209-210; Heizer et al. 2000:576-579; Longenecker et al. 2003:504).

The quality of goods depends on the quality of material and technology that are used to produce those goods. Organisations improve the quality of their goods and services to conform to customer requirements. For example, the South African National Defence Force has to decide on the quality of the arms procurement before purchasing it from either France or Germany. Quality material increases the sale value of goods because quality is equated with price. The more expensive the goods, the better the quality, and customers are therefore willing to pay more for high performance quality because of their desire for a better and higher lifestyle (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2003:384-386; Heap, 1992:24-25; Johnson and Redmond, 1998:35-36; Kolter, 2003:319-320).

According to Kolter, (2003:335) technology has changed the way in which organisations operate. The internet has introduced a new way of doing business. The South African National Defence Force can instantly communicate with all military attachés in different countries. According to Johnson and Redmond, (1998:34, 53) technology has improved the quality and value of goods and services, and allows consumers more options to choose from. It has improved the work life of employees by making work easier and more pleasant. It has improved the standard of living by providing ordinary people with the basic necessities of life (access to water and electricity) and improving the lifestyle of those who can afford it (private medical, luxury cars).

It could be deduced that the physical variables are still appropriate and have greater influence as factors of production, but as tools of production (see 3.1), the current trend is towards better use of the potential available through human resources. Human resources have a greater influence on



productivity than the other resources have, because it is the only resource that adds value to the other resources. It uses the other resources to produce consumable goods and services. Human resources use their effort and energies to increase their performance, which enhances productivity. The effectiveness, efficiency and performance of human resources depend on other variables that change over time. These are the abilities, competencies, skills, education, training, development, experience and personality that employees use to increase their performance and productivity.

The next subsection discusses why human resource variables are a major resource that influence productivity.

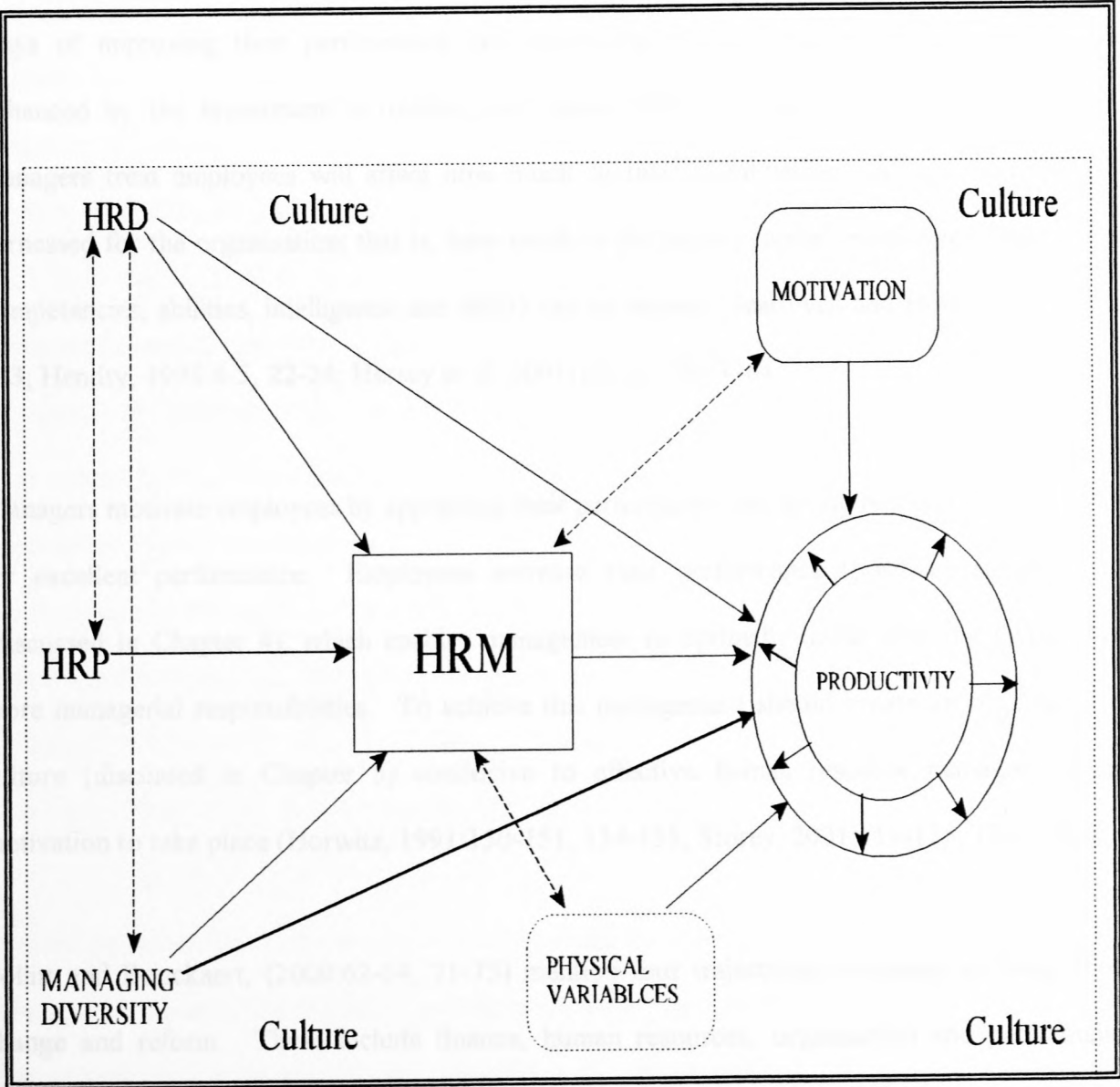
#### **2.4.2 Human Resource Variables**

The human resources variables focuses human resource management, motivation and organisational culture. Figure 2.4 illustrates how human resource management, motivation and organisational culture influence productivity. The figure shows how human resource practices implicitly or explicitly create an organisational culture, and reinforce one another to support a particular culture and increase productivity. For example, human resource planning allows the South African National Defence Force to fill its short-term and medium-term human resource requirements. The figure also shows how the physical variables (discussed in 2.4.1 and 6.4) increases employees' performance and productivity.

Human resource development (discussed in 3.4) enables management to develop employees' abilities, competencies and skills that they use to increase their performance and that enhance

FIGURE 2.4: CHOSEN FACTORS INFLUENCE PRODUCTIVITY

SOURCE: Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005





productivity. Trained and developed employees use their competencies, abilities and skills to increase their performance and productivity. Managing diversity (discussed in 3.5) enables management to appoint the most competent employees in the most appropriate position. The diverse workforce can draw from a wide spectrum of abilities, competencies, skills, experiences and personalities, which they can use to find innovative and creative solutions and discover new ways of improving their performance and increasing productivity. Human capital can be enhanced by the investment in training and development of employees. The way in which managers treat employees will affect how much of their talent, effort and motivation can be harnessed for the organisation; that is, how much of the human capital (employees' capabilities, competencies, abilities, intelligence and skills) can be tapped (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:511-513; Hendry, 1995:4-5, 22-24; Hersey et al. 2001:12-13, 346-348).

Managers motivate employees by appraising their performance and giving recognition and reward for excellent performance. Employees increase their performance (positive reinforcement) (discussed in Chapter 4), which enables management to optimally utilise them by giving them more managerial responsibilities. To achieve this management should create an organisational culture (discussed in Chapter 5) conducive to effective human resource management and motivation to take place (Horwitz, 1991:150-151, 154-155; Storey, 2001:114-115, 126 -128).

Pollitt and Bouckaert, (2000:62-64, 71-75) mention four trajectories necessary to bring about change and reform. These include finance, human resources, organisation and performance measurement systems. A trajectory is an intentional pattern that leads from a starting point to some desired place or state of affair in the future. For example, the South African National Defence Force has implemented affirmative action to redress past social imbalances and to

develop and utilise previously unknown potential. Pollitt and Bouckaert (2000:6) states that these reforms are about increasing performance and productivity. They include making savings (economics) in public expenditure, improving the quality of public services and making the operation of government more efficient and effective.

Pollitt and Bouckaert, (2000:40-41) mention three key features that affect the process of reform. These include structural, functional and cultural elements. These elements are observable in the operation of the organisation. The organisation's structure (see 2.4.1.1) depicts the relationship between the different divisions, departments and sections. The functional relationship (see 2.4.1.1) is the interaction between top, senior, middle and lower management, and between management and employees. Culture creates a right environment in which employees can be motivated to achieve organisational goals. The above takes place in an organisational environment that is laden with strong cultural (see Chapter 5) overtones. For an organisation to increase its productivity it has to include some of the above factors. All four of the trajectories are discussed in this study: finance is discussed in 2.4.1.2; performance measurement systems which can be associated with productivity, is discussed in Chapter 2; human resources are discussed in Chapter 3; and organisation, of which the topography (discussed in Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2000:52-54) includes culture, is discussed in Chapter 5.

It could be deduced that the interaction between human resource planning and human resource development ensures that the best candidates are attracted and selected, and that their abilities, competencies and skills are develop. Developed employees increase their performance and thus enhance productivity. This enables management to effectively manage and optimally utilise the diverse workforce. These processes provide for effective human resource management and enables management to deal with both the internal and external environment. A motivated



workforce is regularly at work doing their best and striving to achieve self-actualisation and individual and organisational goals. Managers motivate employees to establish a better employee-management relationship, which leads to better understanding, cooperation and teamwork. Management uses organisational culture to create an environment in which human resource practices and processes can be used to produce a motivated workforce who can increase their performance and productivity. Human resource management, motivation and organisational culture are therefore explored in more depth in the last part of this chapter and in the following chapters.

#### **2.4.2.1 Human Resource Management**

Human resources are the organisation's single most needed resource that influences productivity. Therefore, workforce diversity, performance appraisal, participative management, training and leadership are major aspects of managers' responsibilities. The workforce of the future will be more diverse (see 3.5). Therefore, management should optimally utilise the entire workforce. Special programmes (fast-tracking and mentorship) should be instituted to enhance the competency and improve the performance of disadvantaged employees, so that they can be optimally utilised. Past differences require that both management and employees are tolerant and to build a relationship that will result in trust, respect and confidence in one another. The diverse workforce is more efficient, effective, creative and productive, because they can draw from a wide spectrum of abilities, competencies, experiences, qualifications, interests, skills and personalities (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:508, 530). There should be organisational flexibility through multiskilling and job rotation. Employees should be utilised according to their abilities, competencies and skills, in positions where the organisation can benefit most (Drucker, 1980:26-28; Katz, 1997:455-457). Therefore, management should know the abilities, competencies and

skills of employees in order to capitalise on them. Workforce diversity has also made leaders and managers aware of the effects of discriminatory policies and practices. Management should change discriminatory policies and practices if they want to treat all employees the same. Management should implement affirmative action (discussed in Chapter 6) to redress past discrimination and institute equal employment opportunities for all employees. Management should also ensure that all genders (gender equity) have access to all organisational resources and are treated equally (Armstrong, 1996:150-153; Mauer and Taylor, 1994:232-234).

Productivity depends on the competency, efficiency and effectiveness of each employee. However, the strength of the total chain depends on the adequacy of each link. Therefore, the combined effort of the group increases the groups performance and enhances productivity. The size of workgroups generally influences productivity, larger groups are less productive than smaller groups. For example, a small group of commanders can quickly decide which course of action to take in a life-threatening situation than a larger group. Homogeneous workgroups are more productive when the work is routine, co-ordinated and chain-related. Heterogeneous workgroups are efficient and effective when dealing with complex tasks, because they can draw from a wider spectrum of abilities, competencies, experiences, skills, qualifications and personalities. Therefore, heterogeneous workgroups are more productive and creative than homogeneous ones. The group effort culminates in increased productivity. The experience of working together to solve specific problems enhances communication and understanding throughout the organisation (Fisher, 1996:180-183; Johnson and Redmond, 1998:159-160; Katz, 1997:285-286; McShane and Glinow, 2000:9-10, 19-25).

Participative management allows employees access to decision-making processes where they can share their expertise with management and enhance the effective achievement of organisational



goals and objectives. The employees' involvement in management activities generates more ideas, permits more interests to be accommodated and facilitates the collection of data. The employees should also participate in productivity measurement systems because their performance is judged by those measurements. However, there should be commitment and consensus between supervisors and subordinates with regard to performance appraisal systems (see 4.8) to be used to measure their performance. Consensus should be reached on the: relevant core targets and how they are measured; calculation mechanism for determining awards; way in which supervisors are going to appraise employees; awards should be extrinsic (merit bonus) not form part of the employees' salary; and performance targets should periodically be reviewed to ensure their effectiveness (Armstrong, 2002:47-52; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:611-613; Johnson and Redmond, 1998:159-160).

Management should treat all employees the same without discriminating against any employee. However, disadvantaged employees should know that there are special programmes available to assist them to improve themselves. The rest of the workforce should not be treated any differently than the disadvantaged employees are treated. The rest of the workforce should have access to the organisation's resources, so that they can achieve both individual and organisational goals and objectives. The effective management of the above functions will produce employees that are competent and empowered to fill human resource requirements. Professional and competent managers (see 3.4) are required to train, develop and optimally utilise the organisation's human resources. Training develops employees' abilities, competencies and skills. Employees' personalities, experiences, interests, qualification and competencies increase the more they are utilised and trained. Employees' abilities and competencies enable them to improve their performance and increase productivity. Training and developing should be competency-based. Managers and employees should be trained in group dynamics and problem-

solving techniques. Training keeps employees abreast of the latest technological advancement and is necessary to maintain a competitive advantage and increase the product performance quality. Special training programmes should be instituted to accommodate the historically disadvantaged workforce, so that they can effectively contribute toward increasing productivity (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:334-336, 355; Katz, 1997:60-64; Ricketts, 1997:394-395).

Training is an investment in human resources. It is a means to improve employees' abilities, competencies, educational qualification and skills. This increases the economic value of employees and makes them more marketable. Training empowers employees to execute their current duties and responsibilities, and prepares them for future senior appointments. Training improves employees' self-esteem, self-confidence and enables them to achieve self-actualisation. Employees are rewarded intrinsically and extrinsically for excellent performance. Training reduces the development and performance gap that exists between the privileged and disadvantaged employees. It is a means of empowering disadvantaged employees to improve their performance and to compete with their advantaged counterparts. A trained and qualified workforce should be effectively utilised in order for the organisation to benefit from its investment in training the workforce. This is the responsibility of leaders because they manage and control the organisation's resources (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:336, 355; Katz, 1997:60-64; Ricketts, 1997:395).

Leaders are responsible for the effective management of the organisation's resources and should therefore be qualified, competent and professional. They should also be educated, trained and developed in order to serve as mentors to new and young leaders. Leaders are also responsible to train, develop, motivate and utilise their subordinates. They should create an organisational culture and work environment that are conducive to improve employees' performance and



quality of life. Leaders should also provide employees with the necessary technology, tools and equipment to increase productivity. The effectiveness of leaders determine the success or failure of organisations and the competency of employees. Leaders should use an appropriate leadership style (transformational, transactional, situational, participative and autocratic) to deal effectively with different situations (Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:134-136; Wright, 1996:2-5, 213-216).

According to Thompson and Strickland, (2003:621-622) the success of the organisation depends on the efficiency and effectiveness of its leadership, because they allocate, utilise and control the organisation's resources. Leaders should influence the attitude, behaviour and beliefs of their followers, so that they can induct them into the organisation's culture. Leaders at all hierarchical levels should empower their employees, so that they can achieve organisational and individual goals and objectives. They should lead by example in all spheres of business (economic, environmental, ethical, legal, political and social), because employees follow their leaders. Leaders can improve employees' performance and productivity by providing them with the necessary technology and techniques.

Productivity can only be increased if the resources that influence it are managed effectively. The only resource that has the capability of managing the other resources is human resources. Employees operate machines, computers and use tools and equipment to produce consumable goods and services. They increase the quality, value and price of goods and services by adding value to them. Therefore, employees should be utilised in positions where management can capitalise on their abilities, competencies and skills (Ricketts, 1997:64-67). Management should utilise diverse workgroups because they can use their abilities, competencies, personalities and skills to find creative solutions to complex problems. Workgroups should reflect the composition of the workforce, but should also constitute the required abilities, competencies and skills needed

to achieve their goals and objectives. Managers should have a relationship with employees in order to strengthen the superior-subordinate relationship. This will give employees the assurance that they belong and are treasured by the organisation. A performance appraisal system enables managers to reward employees according to their performance. Therefore, the performance appraisal system should be perceived by employees as being fair and reliable. It should be a means to motivate employees to improve their performance (Dekker, 1998:57-60).

#### **2.4.2.2 Motivation**

Employees should be motivated to make the connection between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic stimuli. Without this connection, receiving rewards will not motivate high performance over the long term. Instead, employees will work only until they receive the reward and then stop. For example, Simon, the commander promised the troops a long weekend off if they complete the mission earlier than expected. They may succeed, but once they receive the weekend off, they have no reason to continue working at that level. Intrinsic motivation, the inner drive of employees, should be used to fulfill their personal needs and acquire the benefits they could receive from high performance (see 4.4). Once employees' needs are satisfied through rewards that have been conditioned upon productivity, then the process is likely to be repeated. Furthermore, with experience employees become more efficient and competent, and improve their performance and increase productivity (Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:40-42; Dressler, 1992:205; Gaither, 1992:590-592; Gaither and Frazier, 2002:705-706; Ivancevich, 1995:39).

Managers should establish an environment where employees can achieve higher performance (see 4.4). Managers should involve employees in setting challenging goals, which would stretch employees to exert their abilities, competencies and skills to achieve organisational and individual



goals and objectives. Employees should take ownership of these goals and, together with managers, they should design a course of action to achieve those goals. Managers should define the scope of responsibility to ensure that employees know what is expected of them. Managers should align the employees' needs and interests with the mission, goals and objectives of the organisation. This will strengthen employees' sense of belonging and loyalty, and will deepen their sense of dignity and self-respect. This will not only motivate employees to improve their performance, but also encourage them to increase productivity (see 4.4) (Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:56-57; Steers et al. 1996:528-530; Ricketts, 1997:365-366).

Motivation should create harmony, understanding, trust and respect between managers and employees. Managers should motivate employees to achieve self-actualisation, so that employees can use their abilities, competencies and skills to improve their performance and increase productivity. In order for employees to be self-motivated, they should experience both intrinsic motivation and extrinsic rewards. Management should create a work environment where employees can experience intrinsic motivation that results in extrinsic rewards. This will enable employees not only to work for tangible benefits, but also to satisfy personal needs and desires. Management should motivate employees because they are one of the vital resources that influence productivity. Motivation (discussed in 4.4) enables employees to achieve self-actualisation, improve their abilities, competencies, skills and performance. Motivated troops will use their potential to achieve the military mission. To maintain a motivated workforce management should reward and remunerate employees according to their qualification, performance and current market standards (Armstrong, 1996:43-46; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:507-510; Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:2-6, 77-78; Steers et al. 1996:496-502).

Content theories (see 4.4) of motivation explain the dynamics of troops' needs, such as explain

why soldiers work harder on a Friday than on a Monday. Content theories of motivation answer the question: What needs do employees have that should be met on the job? It focuses on identifying and understanding employees' needs. It deals with unrealised needs that could be satisfied at work. By understanding employees' needs, management can discover what motivates them (Gerber et al. 1998:260-261; Gibson et al. 1994:148-149; Lussier, 1997:364; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:67-68; Steers et al. 1996:13-15).

Process theories (see 4.5) of motivation describe the processes through which needs are translated into behaviour. Process theories explain why soldiers work harder during times of war than during times of peace. Process motivation theories answer the question: How do employees choose behaviour to fulfill their needs? It focuses on understanding how employees choose behaviour to fulfill their needs. It deals with motive: How do employees select the correct behaviour to satisfy a particular need? This means that employees choose different behaviour to satisfy different needs (Armstrong, 1996:44-45; Bruce and Pepitone, 2001:2-4; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:76; Robbins, 2001:166, 171).

Reinforcement theory (see 4.6) answers the question: What can managers do to get employees to behave in ways that meet the organisational goals and objectives? It deals with how employees behave or act to satisfy a need. It argues that employees will be motivated to behave in predetermined ways through the consequences of behaviour. It reiterates that behaviour is learned through consequences, which is administrated by managers. The consequences can either lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction, depending on the degree to which the need is met and for how long it is met before dissatisfaction reoccurs, creating another unmet need. The cycle is then repeated (Gibson et al. 1994:177-178; Lussier, 1997:374; Steers and Porter, 1991:69-71).



It could be deducted that a motivated workforce has the driving force that makes them self-motivated. They are intrinsically motivated to achieve more than what is required or expected of them. The extrinsic stimuli (rewards, bonus and promotion) are an appreciation of the intrinsic motivation. Employees execute their job not because of extrinsic stimuli, but because of the intrinsic motivation. All employees should therefore be treated with dignity and respect.

#### **2.4.2.3 Organisational Culture**

According to Beardwell and Holden, (2001:102-106, 112-117) supervisors and subordinates are co-responsible to establish an organisational culture (discussed in 5.2) and work environment which meet the needs and desires of both management and employees. Management employs and controls the organisation's resources, and formulates policies that regulate employees' behaviour. The employees' lifestyle and performance demonstrate the prevailing culture in the organisation. The organisational culture should provide for innovative and creative development. An innovative culture emphasises intellectual knowledge that is based on who has the expertise and who needs the knowledge. The locus of expertise shifts according to the type of information that is needed; one moment it may be the information technology operator, the next it may be the training expert or the financial person. In this situation, hierarchical positions become less necessary than situational context (McShane and Glinow, 2000:23-25).

According to Katz, (1997:28-30, 378-38) organisational culture includes devolution of power, which decentralise authority to the lowest level. The employees are in direct contact with the customers and should provide them with accurate information and professional service. Therefore, employees should be given the appropriate power and authority to make immediate decisions. Employees should have representation at all hierarchical levels. There should be

employee forums where they can discuss their grievances and find solutions that are beneficial to both themselves and to management. Employees should be allowed time off to attend union meetings. The diverse workforce will be effective when they are able to communicate and understand their cultural differences. Inter-cultural learning should be implemented to enable employees to learn about one another's culture. This will promote cultural tolerance and appreciation for cultural diversity. Organisational policies and practices should not only guide employees' behaviour, but should also improve their work life and give them access to the organisation's resources (Stewart, 1997:29-31).

Organisational culture not only distinguishes organisations from one another, but also establishes conditions that distinguish successful from less successful organisations. Organisational culture creates an environment that positively influence employees' behaviour and performance. It provides opportunities for relationship building among employees and between managers and employees. It also influences the dignity, confidentiality, self-respect and trust between managers and employees, particularly as they deal with social imbalances and affirmative action (see 6.2 and 6.3). Interdepartmental cooperation across jurisdictional lines can improve efficiency and quality of service. Public institutions can assist one another by either "contracting in" or "contracting out" those functions that are profitable and less profitable. The core functions should be retained and secondary (less profitable) functions should be outsourced. Equipment that is needed, but not used often enough to justify its cost, can be used by other public organisations by contracting in. The delivery of services that are not profitable to a public institution may be contracted out to a private organisation. For example, the South African National Defence Force is outsourcing catering to private organisations (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:103-104, 250-251; Katz, 1997:447; Thompson and Strickland, 2003:182-184).



According to Popper et al. (1992:3-6) interdepartmental cooperation strengthens mutual understanding and support between South African National Defence Force and the South African Police Services. It improves the relationship between them and provides for the effective utilisation of equipment and machinery. Interdepartmental cooperation allows the South African National Defence Force to focus on its core functions. Interdepartmental cooperation allows for the effective utilisation of the South African National Defence Force resources, which provides a safer South Africa and peace on the sub-continent.

According to Cronjé, (2001:35-36, 355-356) transformation has caused many institutions to reorganise and re-engineer their organisational structures to keep abreast of the latest organisational and technological advancements. Organisations have made better use of limited resources and optimally utilise their workforce. The South African National Defence Force has redesigned jobs, changed the number of hierarchical levels and decentralised authority to lower management. External transformation has influenced the internal operation, policies and procedures of organisations. Fewer hierarchical levels have shortened the channels of communication and improved the flow thereof. The change in structures and systems has allowed for a faster and smoother flow of work and decision-making. Transformation has reduced the workforce and increased the effectiveness of organisations. Transformation is a process and it takes time before the benefits can be seen; leaders should therefore motivate and direct the employees to focus on the results of transformation (Johnson and Redmond, 1998:34-36; Katz, 1997:258-260).

It could be deducted that productivity is very complex. Productivity is an integrated approach to improve an organisations' efficiency, effectiveness, competitiveness and to increase profit. It stimulates management to optimally utilise both the non-human resource variables and the human

resource variables. It is a means to improve employees' abilities, competencies, skills and productivity. It enables employees to achieve self-actualisation and improves their quality of life. Productivity encompasses all the resources that ensure the effective operation of organisations. However, the success of organisations depends on the efficiency and effectiveness of management.

#### **2.4.2.4 Productivity Index**

The previous subsection dealt with the human resource variables that influence productivity. Sources (Avolio et al. 1991:43-46; Campbell and Campbell, 1990:114; Donohue and Wong, 1994:24, 29; Dressler, 1992:10; Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:4; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:3-4; Gaither, 1992:587; Gaither and Frazier, 2002:702-704; Heap, 1992:4; Katz, 1997:375-376; Military Leadership, 1995:1.18; Popper et al. 1992:3-4; Ricketts, 1997:25-27; Robbins, 1990:32-35; Sutermeister, 1969:5; Van der Merwe, 1992:5; Weisbord, 1991:90; Wild, 1995:408-409; Yukl, 1994:49) contributed to what is consolidated here as a human resource related productivity index. The arguments discussed above have been formulated into a productivity index (see Table 2.1) that can be used to measure productivity from a human resource management perspective. The productivity index provides management with information that can enhance the effective utilisation of the workforce. The productivity index provides management with a means to determine the organisation's level of productivity from a human resource management perspective. It enables management to determine the optimal utilisation of employees' potential and identify deficiencies that should be developed. It focuses on managerial functions that allows supervisors to manage and motivate employees to commit their potential to increase productivity. It indicates that the sum of productivity is greater than



TABLE 2.1: PRODUCTIVITY INDEX

PRODUCTIVITY INDEX
<p>Human Resource Management (3.2; 3.3; 3.4; 3.5; 7.3):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Career development</li> <li>• Managing diversity</li> <li>• Participative management</li> <li>• Job enrichment and job rotation</li> <li>• Performance appraisal</li> <li>• Remuneration and rewards</li> <li>• Relationship building</li> <li>• Workgroups</li> </ul> <p>Abilities and competencies (3.4; 3.5; 4.4):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Abilities and competencies</li> <li>• Training and development of employees</li> </ul> <p>Equity of the workforce (6.2; 6.3):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Affirmative action</li> <li>• Equal employment opportunities</li> <li>• Managing diversity</li> </ul>
<p>Motivation (4.2; 4.3; 4.4; 4.5; 4.6; 4.7):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motivated workforce</li> <li>• Rewards and awards</li> <li>• Self-actualisation</li> <li>• Satisfied needs</li> </ul>
<p>Organisational culture (5.2; 5.3):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Employee forums</li> <li>• Union representation</li> <li>• Inter-cultural learning</li> <li>• Organisational development</li> <li>• Policies and practices</li> <li>• Organisational structure</li> <li>• Transformation and reorganisation</li> <li>• Intergovernmental cooperation</li> </ul>

the parts thereof.

Productivity involves the orchestration of all the organisation's resources. A deficiency or lack of one resource impacts on the output of productivity. Therefore, management should effectively manage all the human resource variables. Human resource management (discussed in Chapter 3) focuses on attracting, selecting, retaining, developing, utilising and managing the workforce. Motivation (discussed in Chapter 4) focuses on how management uses the organisation's resources to ensure that the workforce is motivated. Organisational culture (discussed in Chapter 5) creates a work environment that guides the behaviour, beliefs, values, norms and productivity of employees. Productivity is the result of the harmonious orchestration of the organisation's resources and the right composition of workgroups. It is the result of individual performance and the collective effort of the entire workforce. The effort and energies of employees can enhance productivity.

## **2.5 CONCLUSION**

Productivity is the outcome of the effective utilisation of the physical process and human resource process. It requires the commitment of both management and employees to respectively use their abilities, competencies and skills. Managers should effectively manage the organisation's resources and subordinates should use their abilities, competencies and skills to improve their performance and increase productivity. Productivity enhances the organisation's effectiveness, increases profits and stimulates competitiveness. Productivity assessment should be constructed to satisfy the distinct needs of an organisation. The overall consideration is that there should be a measurement that assesses the organisation's level of productivity. Productivity assessment should consider all the factors that influence productivity.



Productivity is the pivotal focus of the corporate world because it impacts on economic growth of countries, affects the standard of living and influences the efficiency, effectiveness, output and profit of organisations. Productivity also improves the quality of life and influences the employees' social status and quality of life. Productivity, as a dependent variable, is affected by the resources (physical and human) that are used to produce goods and services. Productivity is a means to increase the world's limited natural resources to meet the desires, demands, needs and wants of humanity. However, the rapid industrial and technological advancement depletes the earth's natural resources, which may influence the sustainability of future generations.

The next chapter deals with the first element of the human resource variables, human resource management, which is used to manage people effectively to increase their performance and productivity.

## CHAPTER 3

### MANAGING HUMAN RESOURCES

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 2 the dependent variable, productivity is discussed. It dealt with the meaning of productivity and it alludes to the resources that influence and increase it. It emphasised human resource variables, the vital resource that influences productivity, because it adds value to the physical variables by designing and reconstructing them to produce consumable goods and service. It also discussed a productivity index, which serves as a measurement to determine the level of productivity of an organisation. The study now focuses on the three independent variables, which are used to influence the dependent variable. The first independent variable, human resource management is discussed in this chapter. Chapters 4 and 5 focuses on motivation and organisational culture respectively.

According to Hersey et al. (2001:346-347) productivity has traditionally focused on the physical variables (technology and capital resources), using industrial engineering techniques to improve output. This reduces the input of labour cost because people were traditionally used as factors of production, while more recently the focus has shifted to people as resources. The above approaches are still appropriate, but the current trend is toward better use of the potential available through human resources. According to Drucker, (1980:221-23) both capital and human resources are needed to increase productivity. Capital is necessary for acquiring the other physical and human resources and ensures the future success and survival of the organisation. Drucker (1992:81-82) states that capital and technology cannot be substituted for people in knowledge and service sectors. He argues that in the industrial sectors capital and technology are factors of production, which is essential for technological advancement and higher



productivity. However, in the knowledge and service sectors, they are tools of production, which are used to enhance employees' performance and productivity. The effectiveness of the tools of production depends on the potential of the people that use them. It means that highly qualified employees are more productive than those who are not qualified (see 3.3). Smit and Cronjé, (2002:10) states that managers should therefore realise that people are resources to be managed (discussed in Chapter 3) effectively, just like other resources, but also that through people the other resources are utilised more effectively to achieve organisational goals as productively as possible.

Although people are resources, they are different from other resources. Other resources are ordered, categorised and placed in bins to be used when needed. However, people are the most complex of all resources. They are the only resource with personal goals. People strive for self-actualisation and higher status and have preferences, dislikes, needs and wants (Jackson and Schuler, 2000:XIX). Smit and Cronjé, (2002:302-303) states that people come from different backgrounds and have different levels and types of experiences and qualifications. To be optimally utilised and productive people should be managed, trained, developed and motivated. People need special attention to be optimally productive, because they are different and use their different skills and competencies to increase their performance and productivity. They also use their potential to effectively utilise the other resources to achieve the organisation's goals.

Research conducted by Huselid (1995), Becker and Gerhart (1996), Huselid et al. (1997), Ichniowski (1997), Macduffie (1995), Patterson et al. (1997) and Guest (1997) concluded that management practices influence employees' performance. They stated that the real difference between successful and less successful organisations could be the way in which they manage their human resources. The management of human resources is one of primary keys to organisational success (Jackson and Schuler, 2000:XIX). Research conducted by Bayad and

Liouville (1998:184-189) on the impact that human resource management has on economic performance indicates that human resource management significantly influences economic performance. Organisations should manage their human resources effectively if they want to experience organisational effectiveness and increased productivity.

To increase productivity management should use different motivational approaches to motivate (discussed in Chapter 4) a diverse workforce, so that they can use their potential to increase their performance and productivity. Management should create an organisational culture (discussed in Chapter 5) that allows them to manage, train, develop and motivate the workforce so that they are optimally productive. For management to achieve the above they should not only give special attention to people, but also view human resource variables from a long-term perspective, just like the physical variables. People are necessary for the success of an organisation, because they are the lifeblood of an organisation; this is the resource that gets the other resources mobilised (Angus and Humphrey, 1989:2; Jackson and Schuler, 2000:XIX; Latham and Wexley, 1994:2; Ulrich, 1998:27-30).

Chapter 3 explores how the first independent variable, human resource management, influences the dependent variable, productivity. It focuses on how management can use the three core functions of human resource management to manage the organisation's human resources effectively. Human resource planning ensures that the organisation has a large pool of employees from which to select candidates, meet immediate and future human resource requirements. Human resource development ensures that employees are developed to fill human resource requirements. Managing diversity ensures that employees are optimally utilised according to their abilities, competencies and skills, so that they can increase their performance, which in turn enhances productivity. These functions should be planned, organised, coordinated,



delegated, directed and controlled to achieve self-actualisation, increase performance and enhance productivity (Storey, 2001:12-15).

The focus is therefore on human resource management, including human resource planning, human resource development and managing diversity. The generic functions of management are alluded to, but not discussed, in this chapter.

### **3.2 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

This section focuses on the meaning of human resource management and its importance for the study. Management is the process of working with and through individuals and physical variables to accomplish organisational goals (Hersey et al. 2001:9). This definition requires managers to execute the managerial functions of planning, organising, motivating and controlling. These functions constitute the management process and are relevant regardless of the type of organisation or level of management being discussed. All managers are engaged, in part, in getting things done with and through people (Hersey et al. 2001:11-13). Planning involves setting goals and objectives for the organisation and showing how those goals and objectives are to be accomplished. Once plans have been made, organising becomes meaningful, it brings together resources – people, capital, and equipment – in the most effective way to accomplish the organisation's goals. Organising, therefore, involves an integration of resources (Storey, 2001:132). Along with planning and organising, motivating (discussed in Chapter 4) plays a large part in determining the level of performance of employees, which, in turn, influences how effectively the organisational goals will be met. Motivating along with communicating and leading, encompasses directing. Controlling is another function of management. This involves feedback of results and follow-up to compare accomplishments with plans, and to make appropriate adjustments where outcomes have deviated from expectations.

Although these management functions are stated separately, they are interrelated (Hendry, 1995:8).

According to Beardwell and Holden, (2001:16) the term “human resource management” became popular in the 1970s when research in the behavioural sciences showed that managing people as a resource, rather than as factors of production, could result in real benefits to both the organisation and the employees. Human resource management stresses mutuality between supervisors and subordinates, such as, mutual goals, mutual influence, mutual respect, mutual rewards and mutual responsibility. The theory is that policies of mutuality will elicit commitment, which in turn will yield both better economic performance and greater human resource development.

Human resource management is a distinctive approach to employment management that seeks to achieve competitive advantage through the strategic deployment of a highly committed and capable workforce, using an array of cultural, structural and personnel techniques (Storey, 2001:6). Storey, (2001:6-8) states that the trend in human resource management is the adoption of the human resource approach, which benefits organisations in two ways: an increase in organisational effectiveness and the satisfaction of employees’ needs. The emerging approaches focus on the nature of employment relationship, the management of employment relations and the employees’ commitment to the employment relationships. The contemporary approaches to human resource management focus on horizontal authority and reduced hierarchy, in which both supervisors and subordinates have a common interest.

Human resource management has been selected because of the interrelatedness and more holistic approaches in the practice of human resource management (see 2.4.3). The organisation should recruit and select employees who possess the abilities, competencies and skills they



require (see 5.3.1). The quality of employees will determine the type of training and development (see 3.4) that should be provided. Trained and competent employees will use their effort, competencies and skills to increase their performance and productivity (Cornelius, 2001:1-2). According to Beardwell and Holden, (2001:149-152) supervisors can utilise (see 3.5) their subordinates to fill future human resource requirements. Line supervisors are increasingly becoming involved in human resource responsibilities, because they utilise subordinates to achieve the organisation's goals and objectives, which they are responsible for.

Supervisors are increasingly taking responsibility for recruitment, selection, development and utilisation of their subordinates, because they recognise that the labour market from which they recruit their employees is diverse. People are different from each other in many ways – in age, gender, experiences, values, physical ability, mental capacity, culture, personality and their attitude toward work. Globalisation and technological advancement have provided organisations with access to global markets, the production and delivery of goods and services for the global market. This requires an increase in competence. Qualified and competent employees are required to do the job, that human resource management can provide. Line supervisors should cope with managing diversity and cross-culturalism, particularly when dealing with multinational teams (Armstrong, 1996:17-19; Cornelius, 2001:27-29; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:163-164).

Internal and external changes in organisations have resulted in a more holistic approach to human resource management. Information technology has provided new ways of working and new sources of sustainable competitive advantage. It provided ways of monitoring employees' performance and the rewarding thereof. Economic pressures have caused management to downsize, delay and restructure their organisations. This led to the emergence of different organisational structures, for example, the virtual organisation and networking structures.

Organisations have become more flexible in terms of providing permanent (full-time), part-time and short-time employment contracts to employees. The rise in consumerism and an awareness of rights are also reflected in the workplace. Subordinates often seek legal recourse if they feel that they have been badly treated by their supervisors. Cases of this nature will cause line managers to be involved in legal issues. For example, a commander will be expected to provide key information for disciplinary action (Cornelius, 2001:2-3; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:150-155; Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2000:71-75; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000: 9-11).

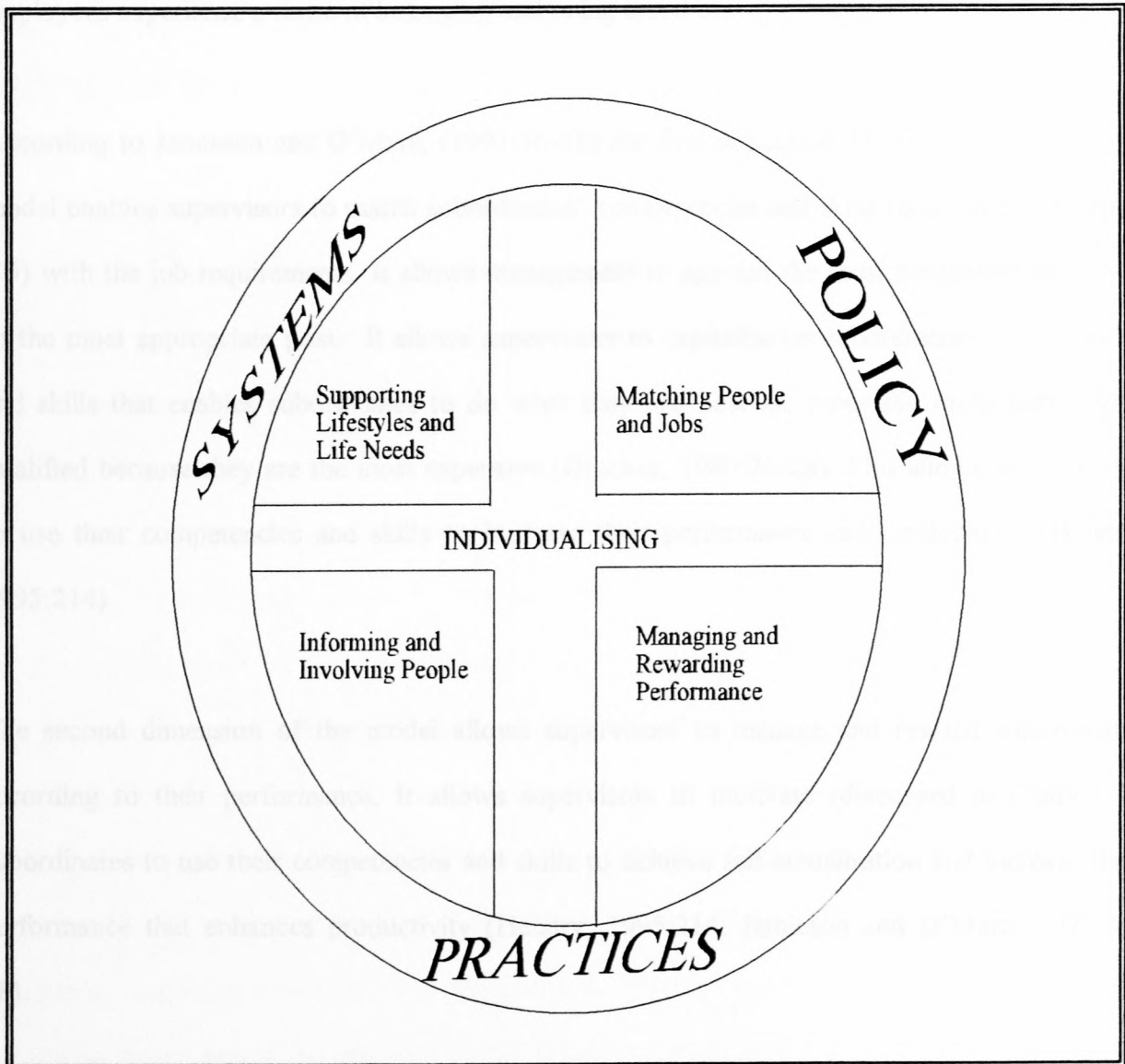
According to Jamieson and O'Mara, (1991:26-28) the Flex-management model, depicted in Figure 3.1 is a management approach that will be used to illustrate how human resource management can be used to increase employees' performance and productivity. These functions correspond with the elements illustrated in Figure 2.4, discussed in 2.4.2, except for the physical variables that are discussed in 6.4. The model can be used to manage a diverse workforce. This model focuses on the critical factors that are necessary to achieve self-actualisation and increased performance that enhances productivity and organisational effectiveness. The Flex-management model is designed to manage employees individually and corporately. This allows supervisors to give personal attention to subordinates and motivate (discussed in Chapter 4) them to achieve self-actualisation and increase their performance. The model enables managers to accommodate individual differences and provide choices whenever possible. This creates an environment of care, in which the appreciation of individual differences and understanding take priority. This makes employees feel that they are special, belong and are needed. It guards against treating all employees the same, because employees are different and their performance is also different. Diverse needs and desires, though equally respected, are not met by treating everyone the same (Hendry, 1995:214).

Jamieson and O'Mara (1991:26-28) states that the Flex-management focuses on instituting



FIGURE 3.1: FLEX MANAGEMENT MODEL

SOURCE: JAMIESON AND O'MARE (1991:37)



policies, systems and practices (discussed in Chapter 3.3) that accommodate the individualised needs and wants of employees. These policies reflect the core philosophies of management. It is designed to influence and guide the behaviour of the employees to achieve organisational goals and objectives. According to Hendry, (1995:214) management should formulate broader policies that provide more options to employees. These policies creates an environment where employees experience a sense of belonging and being cared for.

According to Jamieson and O'Mara, (1991:36-38) the first dimension of the Flex-management model enables supervisors to match subordinates' competencies and skills (discussed in Chapter 3.5) with the job requirements. It allows management to appoint the most competent employee to the most appropriate post. It allows supervisors to capitalise on subordinates competencies and skills that enables subordinates to do what they are best at, especially those with highly qualified because they are the most expensive (Drucker, 1980:26-28). This allows subordinates to use their competencies and skills to increase their performance and productivity (Hendry, 1995:214).

The second dimension of the model allows supervisors to manage and reward subordinates according to their performance. It allows supervisors to motivate (discussed in Chapter 4) subordinates to use their competencies and skills to achieve self-actualisation and increase their performance that enhances productivity (Hendry, 1995:214; Jamieson and O'Mara, 1991:36-38).

The third dimension of the model allows supervisors to communicate (see 2.4.1.1) and give regular feedback to subordinates. This allows for the establishment of a sound superior-subordinate relationship and for informing subordinates about their progress. The model also allows supervisors to involve subordinates in the decision-making processes of the organisation



(Jamieson and O'Mara, 1991:36-38). This allows subordinates to accept ownership for the achievement of the organisation's goals and objectives (Hendry, 1995:214).

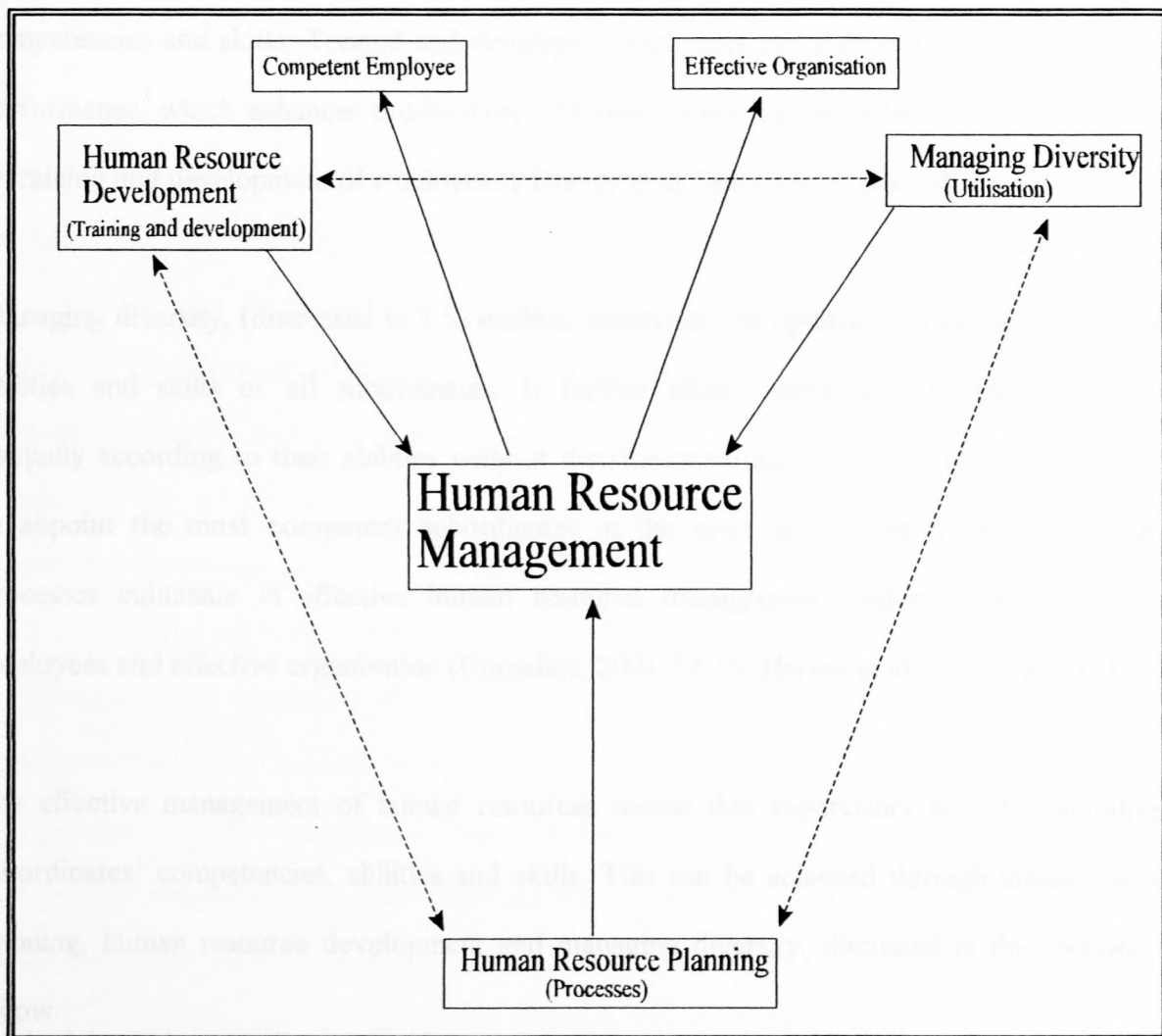
According to Jamieson and O'Mara, (1991:36-38) the fourth dimension of the model allows supervisors to support subordinates to achieve self-actualisation, improve their standard of living and quality of life. It allows supervisors to train and develop (discussed in Chapter 3.4) subordinates, so that they can achieve self-actualisation and increase their performance and productivity. This can be done by creating an organisational culture (discussed in Chapter 5) that is conducive for subordinates to achieve both organisational and individual goals and objectives. The four dimensions should focus on improving the work life of employees, which will enable employees to achieve self-actualisation and increase their performance and productivity (Hendry, 1995:214; Jamieson and O'Mara, 1991:36-38).

Jamieson and O'Mara (1991:36-38) states that the Flex-management model allows for effective human resource management (see 3.2), the motivation (discussed in Chapter 4) of the workforce and the establishment of an organisational culture (discussed in Chapter 5), which allows employees to achieve self-actualisation, individual and organisational goals. The model provides for the needs of the entire workforce, but gives special attention to the individual needs and desires of employees. The model recognises that employees are not motivated by the same reward and motivational techniques. This allows supervisors to customise remuneration and rewards by providing more options to subordinates. Supervisors recognise that subordinates are the organisation's assets and that they should be valued, developed and maintained. This allows supervisors to motivate subordinates to achieve self-actualisation and to use their competencies and skills to increase their performance and productivity.

Figure 3.2 illustrates how human resource planning, human resource development and

FIGURE 3.2: FACTORS INFLUENCING HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

SOURCE: Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005



### 3.3 HUMAN RESOURCE PLANNING

The previous section explored how the trend to increase productivity has changed from focusing on capital and technological resources to the current trend of better use of the personnel available.



managing diversity influences human resource management. These factors are alluded to in the Flex-management model (see Figure 3.1). The figure shows how human resource practices implicitly or explicitly create an organisational culture and reinforce one another to support a particular culture and increase employees' competencies, skills, experiences and performance (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:511-513). Human resource development, (discussed in 3.4) enables management to empower employees by training and developing their abilities, competencies and skills. Trained and developed employees use their potential to increase their performance, which enhances productivity. Human capital can be enhanced by the investment in training and development of employees ( Hersey et al. 2001:12-13, 346-348).

Managing diversity, (discussed in 3.5) enables supervisors to optimally utilise the competencies, abilities and skills of all subordinates. It further allows supervisors to treat subordinates uniquely according to their abilities without discriminating against them. It allows supervisors to appoint the most competent subordinates in the most appropriate positions. The above processes culminate in effective human resource management, which produces competent employees and effective organisation (Cornelius, 2001:29-30; Hersey et al. 2001:346-348).

The effective management of human resources means that supervisors have to capitalise on subordinates' competencies, abilities and skills. This can be achieved through human resource planning, human resource development and managing diversity, discussed in the sections that follow.

### **3.3 HUMAN RESOURCE PLANNING**

The previous section explored how the trend to increase productivity has changed from focusing on capital and technological resources to the current trend of better use of the potential available

through human resources. The South African National Defence Force is increasingly becoming involved in human resource functions, because it has to manage a larger diverse workforce and is progressively appointing Non-Statutory Force employees to hierarchical positions. The Flex-management model (see Figure 3.1) is a means by which management can achieve the above. The factors mentioned in the circle of the model is alluded to in this section.

This section focuses human resource planning. Human resource planning is a process for determining and assuring that an organisation has sufficiently trained and qualified employees, who are available to meet the organisation's future human resource requirements (Carrell et al. 1997:142; Ivancevich, 1995:135-137). Human resource planning is concerned with forecasting the future needs of the organisation in terms of skills, expertise and competences; of analysing the availability and supply of people; of drawing up plans to match supply to demand; and of monitoring the implementation of the human resource plan (Armstrong, 1996:19; Cornelius, 2001:34). Human resource planning is a proactive strategy that anticipates and responds to changes in the environment, and is linked to a corporate strategy designed to enhance competitive advantage or quality of service (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:149-150; Storey, 2001:139; 3.2). According to the above definitions, human resource planning ensures the course of direction and determines the achievement of goals. It parallels and facilitates the implementation of the strategic organisational plan and sets the priorities that an organisation uses to align available or potential resources and programmes with its strategic organisation plan. It focuses on planned major changes and crucial issues in the organisation, such as the possible external constraints and requirements, the implications for management selection, management development and succession planning and the short-term activities needed to meet medium and long-term goals.

The human resource planning process should comprise of the following components: the organisation's overall policies, goals, objectives and plans; the current human resource situation; human resource forecasting; and the implementation of programmes, audits and



adjustments. Human resource planning has to form an integral part of the overall strategic plan and should take cognizance of the environmental influences, including policy, political trends and legislation affecting the nature and scope of activities, economic conditions, social trends and technological advances. It should consider the values and aspirations of organisational leadership, clients, regulators and suppliers. Attention should be given to the internal strengths and weaknesses of the organisation's human, financial and technical resources. The programmes should be evaluated to determine the progress made and corrective should be taken (Beer et al. 1984:16; Cascio, 1978:44, 221-225; Milkovich and Boudreau, 1991:129-132; Schwella et al. 1996:37).

It could be deducted that the above process enables management to: (1) optimally utilise its employees in appropriate positions; (2) allow internal promotion by promoting suitable candidates to senior management positions; (3) fill critical positions that cannot be filled internally by external appointment; (4) select candidates who possess the competencies and skills they require; (5) appoint candidates who adopt the organisation's culture; (6) do career planning and succession planning.

According to Campbell and Campbell, (1990:97-98, 101-104, 107) human resources are an organisation's biggest cost item. This provides the organisation with a strong economic incentive to make optimal use of its human resources. The appointment of employees represents a rand-and-cents investment by the organisation. The effects of errors in selection, poor job placement or promotion, not only reflect adversely on the organisation, but also deplete scarce resources. Therefore, organisations cannot afford a mismatch between job requirements and candidate's competencies and skills.

Cook (1991:35) states that selection techniques reduce the organisation's human resources costs. It enables organisations to select and appoint the best candidates to the most appropriate

positions. It enables organisations to match employees' competencies and skills with job requirements. This enables supervisors to capitalise on subordinates' competencies and skills, which reduce training and development, and allow employees to contribute earlier to the organisation's performance and productivity. Selection techniques also recommends appropriate training to overcome the skills deficiencies of employees (Latham and Wexley, 1994:5). A good selection can increase the productivity of those organisations that use psychological assessment to attract and employ the best of available candidates (Pearson, 1991:144).

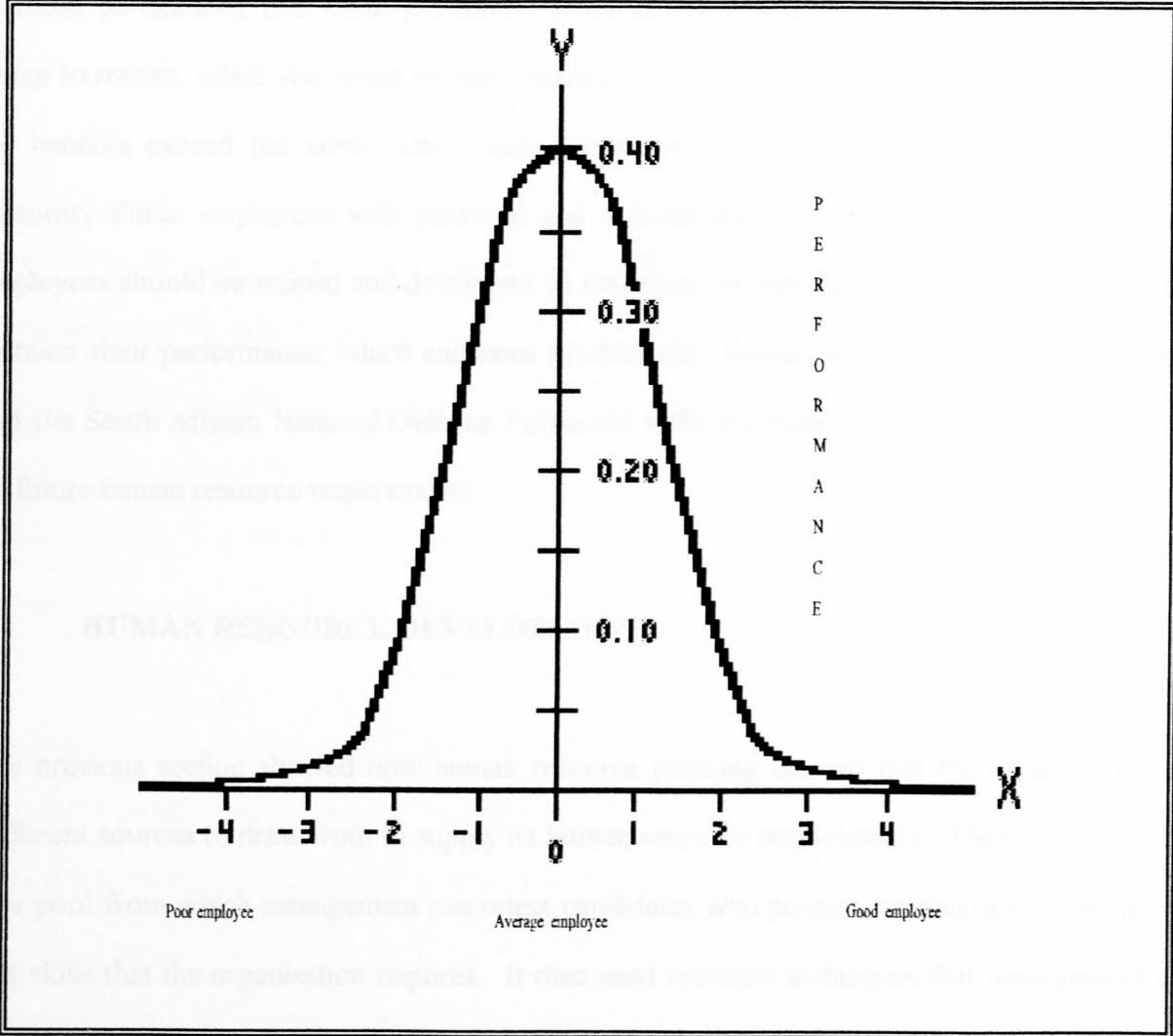
According to Cook, (1991:4-5) the rational estimate technique (Figure 3.3) is a means to assists supervisors in making an ideal match between subordinates' competencies and skills and the job requirements. It is designed to distinguish between good and poor employees. A good employee would be at the 2<sup>nd</sup> percentile, and one who is poor would be at the -4<sup>th</sup> percentile. Since these values correspond roughly to one standard deviation either side of the mean, a employee at the 4<sup>th</sup> percentile is two standard deviations above the mean. This means that the best employees are twice as good as the poor employees. The standard deviation is crucial in the equation for estimating the return on a selection programme since, the smaller the standard deviation, the less the difference in value between good and poor employees and similarly, the bigger the standard deviation, the greater the difference between best and poor employees. Management can save more money by selecting the best employees. The better the fit, the higher the employees' performance, the greater their contribution toward increasing productivity (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:245-247).

It could be deducted that human resource planning ensures that a large pool of employees are available from which the organisation can select candidates to fill its immediate and future human resource requirements. It uses assessment centres to assess employees' potential for appointment to senior management positions. It helps management to forecast the organisation's



FIGURE 3.3: THE RATIONAL ESTIMATE TECHNIQUE

SOURCE: COOK (1991:4)



human resource needs, future supply and demand, which assist succession planning. Human resource planning allows management to attract candidates whose behaviour compatible with the organisation's culture. It provides management with insight into the psychological makeup of candidates, and identifies which motivational techniques to use.

It could be deduced that these processes would enable the South African National Defence Force to recruit, select and retain the best employees. Selection programmes are expensive, but the benefits exceed the costs. The South African National Defence Force can select Non-Statutory Force employees with potential and appoint them to hierarchical positions. These employees should be trained and developed so that they can use their competencies and skills to increase their performance, which enhances productivity. Human resource development ensures that the South African National Defence Force has sufficient trained and qualified employees to fill future human resource requirements.

### **3.4 HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT**

The previous section showed how human resource planning ensures that the organisation has sufficient sources to draw from to supply its human resource requirements. These sources serve as a pool from which management can select candidates who possess the abilities, competencies and skills that the organisation requires. It discussed selection techniques that management can use to recruit, select and appoint the best candidates. This section explores the fourth dimension of the Flex-management model (see Figure 3.1). It discusses how training and development empowers employees with competencies and skills to perform their functions. Learning increases the competencies and skills of employees, and their employability. Management development empowers managers with competencies and skills to deal with the ever-changing processes that influence the organisation's productivity and effectiveness. These factors are



discussed in the subsections that follow.

### **3.4.1 Training and Development**

Training is the creation of an environment where employees may acquire specific work-related behaviours, knowledge, skills, abilities and competencies. Training is a systematic imparting of skills, rules, concepts or attitudes, which enhance effectiveness, efficiency and increase employee performance. Development is the process of progression and advancement that takes place when learning occurs independently of instruction. Therefore, work in itself should be instructive and the employee has to experience the job as a learning opportunity. The employee should perceive the job as requiring abilities, competencies and skills that he or she possesses. Development represents a future-orientated investment in employees. This is based on the fact that employees will acquire knowledge, skills and competencies to make a success of their careers. Learning is a process by which a employee acquires skills and proficiency at a task which, in turn, has the effect of permitting increased productivity in his or her performance of that task. Although there is a distinction between training, development and learning, they all contribute to enhance employees' performance (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:279; Cronje et al. 2001:15; Leap and Crino, 1993:294; Van Dyk et al. 1997:377).

Training should be supported by top and senior management's commitment and should be an integral part of the organisational culture. Training should be connected to the organisation's strategic management plan and the objectives should be linked to the bottom line results. A comprehensive and systematic approach to training should exist. Training and retraining should take place at all levels on an ongoing basis. There should be commitment to invest the necessary resources to train the workforce. Training is an investment of time and money in employees' development. It should therefore be supported by top and senior management. Supervisors

should create a culture of learning where subordinates are trained and developed to meet the organisation's demands and keep abreast of rapid technological advancement, particularly in information and telecommunication technology (Cronje et al. 2001:474-476; Heap, 1992:26; Pearson, 1991:144; Van Dyk et al. 1997:409).

On-the-job training is probably the most common approach to training. It can range from relatively unsophisticated 'observe and copy' methods to highly structured courses built into workshop or office practice. Training that is planned and structured takes place mainly at the normal workstation of the trainee. Instruction may also be provided in a special training area on site, a supervisor, trainer or colleague may spend significant time with a trainee to teach a set of skills that has been specified in advance. The use of different on-the-job training techniques motivate employees to optimally use their competencies and skills to execute their tasks. It also changes employees' attitude to monotonous work. Training may have a practical phase to help trainees practice their skills. Mentoring, as discussed below, is another on-the-job training method. It is a system in which a senior or experienced employees take charge of the training and development of a new employee. Job rotation is a means of training by switching roles. It helps to relieve boredom and thereby increases employees' performance and productivity (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:331-333; Cronje et al. 2001:474-476; Erasmus and Van Dyk, 1999:216-218; Hellriegel et al. 2001:251; Van Dyk et al. 1997:395-397).

According to Beardwell and Holden, (2001:331-333) There is also off-the-job training that includes courses, seminars and workshops. Off-the-job training is sometimes necessary to get employees away from the hustle and bustle of the work environment. Off-the-job training allows employees to interact and exchange ideas, knowledge and information with employees from other organisations. This extend their networking and broadens their respective world view. However, off-the-job training is often viewed by both recipients and fellow employees as



a waste of time and money. To attend a course can be interpreted by the trainee as a sign of official approval or disapproval (Hellriegel et al. 2001:251). For example, an approval sign would be to send a platoon leader on a course that is necessary for promotion or to improve his or her performance. A negative perception could be that a platoon leader feels that he or she is being sent on a course because they are not very efficient in their job. Supervisors should clearly communicate the purpose for the training. This will help employees to prepare themselves psychologically to learn (Erasmus and Van Dyk, 1999:217-218; Van Dyk et al. 1997:396-397).

### 3.4.2 Learning

Learning is a process by which an employee acquires skills and proficiency at a task which, in turn, has the effect of permitting increased productivity in his or her performance of that task (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:279; Cronje et al. 2001:15; Leap and Crino, 1993:294). Learning is influenced by numerous factors, which are, amongst others, task length, task complexity, competency of the employee and his or her familiarity with the type of work to be learned (Van Dyk et al. 1997:362-363; Wild, 1995:110-111).

Continuous learning is self-directed, conscious and reflective learning from experience, which is consciously managed in the organisation. The basic principle of reflective experiential learning is contained in Kolb's (1984) and Mumford's (1986) concept learning cycle. In this learning cycle, managers learn through a process of implementation, reflection, making changes and initiating further action. Action learning has been given fullest expression in the work of Revans (1983). Revans saw learning ( $L$ ) as a combination of what he terms programmed knowledge ( $P$ ) and questioning insight ( $Q$ ): thus  $L = P + Q$ . When facing unprecedented changes, managers cannot know what programmed knowledge they will need. Instead, they need to understand the

subjective aspects of searching the unfamiliar, or learning to pose useful and discriminating questions. Therefore, action learning becomes a simple device of setting them to tackle real problems that have so far defied solution. Managerial learning has to embrace both 'know-how' and 'know-that', and has to be rooted in real problem solving, because managers need both past experiences and the acquisition of fresh knowledge. In finding solutions to current problems, managers are willing to work with colleagues who are engaged in the same process, rather than with non-managers who are not exposed to real risk in responsible action. Action learning principles include the following: management development should be based on real work projects; those projects should be owned and defined by senior managers as having a significant impact on the future success of the enterprise; managers should aim to make a real return on the cost of the investment; managers should work together and learn from each other; managers should achieve real action and change; managers should study the content and process of change; and managers should publicly commit themselves to action (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:395; Hendry, 1995:298-299; Van Dyk et al. 1997:360-361).

According to Beardwell and Holden, (2001:284-285) the outcomes of learning are skills, competencies, 'know-how', or tacit knowledge, and employability. Skills are the performance of any task, which for its successful and rapid completion requires employees to use different skills and talents to complete a variety of work activities. Competency is the ability to perform the activities within an occupational area to the levels of performance expected in employment. Competency integrates knowledge and skills that are assessed by performance. Know-how is the tacit knowledge of how to execute something. This knowledge is acquired through experience rather than through instruction (Storey, 2001:340). According to McShane and Von Glinow, (2000:10, 109, 113) employability is the employment relationship in which the job is a temporary event and employees are expected to continuously learn skills that will keep them employed in a variety of work activities. Employability replaces the job-for-life contract. It



makes employees more flexible to deal with downsizing, restructuring and outsourcing non-core activities. Learning implies that employees have mastered the subject to be learned and are ready to apply their knowledge and skills with understanding to a work activity. It equips employees with skills to complete different work activities. It empowers employees with competencies to deal with complex corporate challenges, by using their conceptual and analytical skills. It stimulates employees to use their experiences and exposure to find solutions to complex problems. It enables employees to achieve self-actualisation, by providing opportunities for training and development.

### **3.4.3 Management Development**

Management development is a conscious and systematic process to control the development of managerial resources in the organisation for the achievement of goals and strategies (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:373; Van Dyk et al. 1997:381). Management development is a process of developing and educating selected personnel in the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to manage in future positions (Skinner and Ivancevich, 1992:383). Management development refers to preparing and training managers successfully to manage their subordinates, while at the same time developing the strategies of the enterprise and achieving its objective (Erasmus and Van Dyk, 1999:210). The above definitions emphasise the need for analysing human resource management as a crucial element of productivity. According to these definitions, management development is a process that the South African National Defence Force can use to educate and develop managers and leaders to deal with the ever-changing processes that influence the management of the South African National Defence Force's resources. It enables managers and leaders to deal with internal and external changes.

The need to develop effective managers originates from major environmental shifts in the

corporate world. Organisations are globalising in their quest for markets that will bring new opportunities for growth and prosperity. Development in technology, especially in information technology and telecommunications, is leading to greater efficiency reduced costs and opportunities to launch new products and services. The nature of organisational life is changing. Organisations are becoming more complex and diverse. Adaptability and flexibility are the essential characteristics for survival and success. Organisations realise that the quality of an organisation's human resources represents a critical success factor. But if the human resource is to become a critical success factor, then organisations should be prepared to develop individual managers and management teams that are not only flexible, adaptable and innovative in technical, financial and business issues, but skilled in human resource management. To achieve this, organisations should be prepared to invest in continuous management education and development (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:374-376; Cannon, 1994:146-148; Erasmus and Van Dyk, 1999:210-211).

Organisations that fail to make this type of investment are unlikely to exploit future opportunities and potential; adapt successfully in the face of major change; develop new markets and products; retain and motivate employees; create and sustain an effective management team; and survive and prosper in an increasingly unstable and competitive global environment. Management development should therefore be viewed as a strategic imperative. At the individual's level, it can assist managers to unlearn their old ways, change attitudes, modify their management styles and update technical and professional skills. At the organisational level, it can operate as a catalyst and a vehicle for change and development in organisations. It encourages managers to be innovative in their area of responsibility and provide them with the essential knowledge and skills to manage complex and radical change processes (Erasmus and Van Dyk, 1999:210-211; Van Dyk et al. 1997:381-382).



Management can use action learning (discussed in 3.4.2), coaching, counselling and mentoring, discussed below to complement management development programmes. Coaching is used for enhancing the performance of somebody who already has a certain degree of competence, rather than establishing competence in the first place. The coach should be willing to share tasks and assignments with the individual. Each task should have scope, responsibility and authority to challenge and test the individual. Coaching usually begins with a period of instruction and shadowing to grasp the essential aspects of the task. There is then a transfer of responsibility for the task to the individual. Throughout the process there is a dialogue, with regular feedback on performance in the form of constructive criticism and comments. The effectiveness of this feedback (see 2.4.3) is dependent upon a sound working relationship. In most organisations, coaching is done on an informal basis and is dependent on the coach having the inclination, time and motivation to do it, as well as possessing the necessary expertise and judgement for it to succeed (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:397-398; Hersey et al. 2001:355; Torrington et al.1994:432).

According to Beardwell and Holden, (2001:539) counselling is any activity in the workplace where one individual uses a set of skills and techniques to help another individual to take responsibility for and to manage their own decision-making, whether it is work related or personal. Counselling is central to the management and development of employees. All managers are engaged in some activity that could be termed counselling as part of their normal working life. One of the challenges of supervisors is to get subordinates to accept much of the responsibility for their own self-development. However, supervisors should ensure that subordinates have the necessary training and guidance to enable them to meet their expectations. Supervisors should do as much as they possibly can do to help their subordinates to help themselves, because that is the best way for subordinates to learn (Fisher, 1996:163-167).

According to Beardwell and Holden, (2001:397-398) mentoring represents a powerful form of management development for both the mentor and protégés. For the individual, it allows them to discuss confusing, perplexing or ambiguous situations, and their innermost feelings and emotions, with somebody they can trust and respect. They gain the benefit of accumulated wisdom and experience from somebody who is knowledgeable and street-wise in the ways of the organisation, especially its political workings. For older managers looking for new challenges and stimulation in their managerial role, mentoring represents an ideal development opportunity. It gives them an opportunity to achieve satisfaction and personal reward by sharing in the growth and maturity of another individual. Their relationship is a developmental one that serves to enhance the career of the protégé, while also benefiting the mentor (Armstrong, 2002:129-130).

Mentoring facilitates the learning-to-learn of protégés and contributes to the process of meaning-making in the organisation, while meeting the developmental needs of protégés. Mentors offer their protégés support, challenge and vision. Senior officers can mentor junior and new officers by listening, providing structure, expressing positive expectations, serving as advocate and sharing themselves with them. Senior officers offer challenges by setting tasks, engaging in discussion, drawing attention to dichotomies, constructing hypotheses and setting high standards. They offer vision by modelling, keeping tradition and mirroring acceptable behaviour. The mentor, counsellor or coach may not be the subordinate's immediate supervisor. An older, more experienced manager unconnected with the subordinate's immediate workplace is normally selected or agrees to act as mentor. Mentoring is about developing and sharing relationships rather than engaging in specific activities. Coaching and mentoring represent the most tangible, practical useful forms of on-the-job development (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:311-313; Fisher, 1996:134-135; Johnson and Redmond, 1998:158-159).



most tangible, practical useful forms of on-the-job development (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:311-313; Fisher, 1996:134-135; Johnson and Redmond, 1998:158-159).

Organisations should develop employees because they increasingly require employees to have the following qualities and attributes (Barrow and Loughlin, 1993:198; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:277, 326; Castells, 1998:341):

- a high level of education, possibly up to degree level, so that employees can operate new technology, understand the contribution of their role to the company and take decisions appropriate to their jobs;
- the ability to learn new skills and adapt to changing circumstances, by taking responsibility for their own learning, keeping their skills up to date and learning new processes;
- the ability to work in organisations with flatter structures and fewer layers of management, implying the ability to work without supervision, setting their own objectives, monitoring their own performance and correcting failures;
- the ability to manage the interface with customers and between departments, requiring a good level of interpersonal skills; and
- the ability to solve problems, thinking creatively about future possibilities, and contributing to their own unique ideas.

It could be deducted that human resource development is a crucial mechanism that safeguards the organisation's intellectual capital. It gives the organisation a competitive advantage because it possesses knowledge that is unique to it. Therefore, supervisors should train and develop subordinates to acquire competencies and skills to increase their performance and productivity. There are different training techniques (lectures, case studies, role playing and on-the-job training) that supervisors can use to train subordinates. Learning motivates employees to change their environment and to improve their social conditions. It empowers employees with

effectiveness, performance and productivity. The trained and developed workforce should be optimally utilised in order for the organisation to maximise its returns in investment. It is the responsibility of human resource management to capitalise on the abilities, competencies and skills of the employees and to optimally utilise them.

### **3.5 MANAGING DIVERSITY**

The previous section focused on how training, development and learning provides the organisation with qualified and competent employees. These employees use their competencies and skills to increase their performance that enhances productivity. It emphasised the necessity of developing managers so that they can manage the organisation's challenges and ensure that the organisation's performance and productivity are increased. This section deals with the first dimension of the Flex-management model. It discusses how management matches employees' competencies and skills with job requirements and utilises the workforce to achieve organisational goals and objectives. It reiterates the importance that the most competent employees should be selected and appointed to the most appropriate positions, where they can best achieve the organisation's goals and objectives. It also focuses on how managers can manage a diverse workforce to increase their performance and enhance organisational effectiveness and productivity.

Workforce diversity means that an organisation is becoming more heterogeneous in terms of gender, race and ethnicity (Robbins, 2001:13). Diversity management is the planning and implementing of organisational systems and practices to manage people so that the potential advantages of diversity are maximised while the potential disadvantages are minimised (Dressler, 1998:10). Diverse management is a planned, systematic and comprehensive managerial process for developing an organisational environment in which all employees, with



their similarities and differences, can contribute to the strategic and competitive advantage of the organisation (Carrell et al. 1997:53). According to the above definitions, the diverse workforce is not only physically different from one another, but also culturally, emotionally and psychologically. This means that the diverse workforce also has different abilities, competencies, capabilities, skills, personalities, qualifications and experiences, which management can develop to achieve organisational goals and objectives. Diversity management is the modification (restructuring) of organisational systems, structures, procedures and practices to create opportunities (career development) for the optimal utilisation of the employees' competencies and skills to increase the organisation's productivity (see 2.4) and performance (see 4.4). Career development allows employees to use their competencies and skills acquired through training and development (see 3.4.1) and learning (see 3.4.2) to improve their corporate advancement. Therefore, management should utilise the sum of the differences that the diverse workforce brings to the organisation.

If utilised appropriately, diversity increases productivity, as is indicated in the following subsections.

### **3.5.1 Utilising a Diverse Workforce**

Organisations operate in culturally diverse communities and societies. Organisations should provide and serve the needs and wants of those communities and societies. The South African National Defence Force has a diverse workforce that can communicate and serve people in their own language. This establishes a sound business-customer relationship, which can be used to promote the image of the South African National Defence Force in society. The South African National Defence Force has to change its structures and systems to accommodate external changes. This should be done by the human resources department, which plays a crucial role in

promote the image of the South African National Defence Force in society. The South African National Defence Force has to change its structures and systems to accommodate external changes. This should be done by the human resources department, which plays a crucial role in facilitating diversity management. It can use programmes to help supervisors to gain a better understanding of how to deal with diverse subordinates (Hall, 1995:24; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:9).

According to Carrell et al. (1997:53-55) many organisations need a diverse workforce to provide better customer service in the global marketplace. The South African National Defence Force operates in communities that are diverse and therefore serves a heterogeneous population. This allows the South African National Defence Force to understand and respond more accurately to peoples' needs and wants. People prefer to be assisted by employees who can speak their language and understand their needs. This creates a business relationship that is beneficial to both organisation and customers. Employees with diverse backgrounds provide a different perspective on situations, which allows fresh ideas and solutions to come about. This makes the South African National Defence Force more resilient and flexible to achieve its goals (Dressler, 1998:18-20; Robbins, 2001:13-15).

In order to accommodate diversity of cultures in a workplace, a strong organisational culture (discussed in Chapter 5) should be established by creating a homogeneous value system to which employees could subscribe. Management should promote moral values, human dignity, respect, honesty and trust. The formal and informal communication channels can be utilised to foster the organisations' philosophy and work lifestyle. Selection procedures can be devised to recruit new employees with values and preferences that are compatible with the organisation's prevailing culture. The workforce is considered to be an organisation's most needed resource, and, the organisations' human resource philosophy should be the basis on which to build



productivity (Cornelius, 2001:29-33; Hall, 1995:25; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:9-10; Tayeb, 1996:174, 189-190).

A dedicated diversity unit in the human resources department can assist in diversity management by fulfilling the following functions: researcher, problem solver, facilitator and influencer. First, the human resources department can act as a researcher by gathering information from various departments, employees and outside sources in order to help design the most effective diversity management programme for the organisation. Second, the human resources department can be a problem-solver by scheduling meetings and finding appropriate funding for diversity management initiatives. Third, the human resources department can function as a facilitator in opening up communication channels and 'safe channels of interaction' for employees who do not have the necessary diversity skills. Fourth, the human resources department is an influencer. It has knowledge of the organisation's 'political climate'. The knowledge of how internal politics work allows the human resources department to support the efforts of all employees and departments who start on the journey of diversity management (Ivancevich and Gilbert, 2000:75; Jackson, 1992:122-123; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:181-183).

The diverse workforce not only serves the interest of diverse communities, but also use their abilities, competencies, personalities, experiences and skills to increase their performance that enhances productivity. The next subsection discusses how diversity can increase productivity.

### **3.5.2 Diversity Increases Productivity**

The workforce diversity creates an environment that brings creative skills, innovative ideas and flexibility to the organisation. Workforce diversity creates an environment where employees

are valued, motivated, trained, optimally utilised and have equal opportunities to achieve self-actualisation. It gives a new perspective on how employees view situations and allows them to participate in productivity, which motivates them to produce high quality goods and services. Diversity allows employees to use their potential to increase their performance, which enhances productivity. It allows employees to guard against ethnocentrism and creates awareness of gender discrimination (Carrell et al. 1997:53; Cornelius, 2001:32-35; Human, 1996:5; Horwitz, 1991:109-111; Jamieson and O'Mara, 1991:23, 43-45).

According to Cornelius, (2001:32-35) organisations embark on managing a diverse workforce to tap into a range of abilities and competencies, which they never explored and utilised before. The diverse workforce allows them to increase the organisation's performance, productivity and organisational effectiveness in a demanding corporate world. It allows organisations to attract and retain the most competent employees (see 3.3) with the best talent. The diverse workforce is more creative in solving work problems. This enables organisations to satisfy customers and market needs and wants. In order to maximise the utilisation of the entire workforce, improve employee relations and communication between unions and management (Carrell et al. 1997:53; Human, 1996:5; Horwitz, 1991:109-111; Jamieson and O'Mara, 1991:23, 43-45).

According to Cox, (1994:43) the challenge of workforce diversity is not the changing composition of the workforce itself, but the inability of organisations to integrate and utilise a diverse workforce at all levels of the organisation. Supervisors should treat all subordinates the same, recognising differences and responding to those differences in ways that will ensure subordinate retention and increased productivity. At the same time, supervisors should not discriminate against subordinates. Robbins (2001:14) states that diversity increases creativity and innovation, and improves the quality of decision-making because employees can draw from different perspectives, competencies, skills and experiences to solve complex problems.



Diversity also allows employees to take on a greater variety of tasks and roles. Therefore, employees should have equal access to use the organisation's resources to achieve individual goals and objectives. This allows employees to develop at their own pace according to their abilities and potential (Milliken and Martins, 1996:421-422; Mor Barak, 2000:23).

A diverse workforce can increase the organisation's performance, productivity and effectiveness when they participate in productivity. The diverse workforce can increase productivity when:

- effective leadership is present to manage the organisation's resources and top management pledges its commitment and support;
- the workforce is empowered and put in charge of what they;
- the workforce is trained and developed to possess adequate competencies and skills that increase their performance;
- effective management systems are in operation and all employees have access to equal opportunities;
- supervisors optimally utilise and capitalise on the abilities and competencies of all subordinates;
- they participate in crucial decision-making that involves their work, are appointed to appropriate positions, given challenging assignments, and receive quality supervision to take care of their well-being;
- cultural change takes place and inter-cultural learning is instituted so that employees know why they are different from others, recognise that change is a way of life and a process that takes years before it produces results, and that managing a diverse workforce will take years before it produces fruit;
- evaluative instruments are used to measure the progress and outcome of workforce diversity programmes, employees' performance and the achievement of increased productivity; and

- leaders and managers at all levels of the hierarchy are involved in managing diversity.

To achieve the above, both supervisors and subordinates should redesign, reconstruct and re-engineer organisational systems, structures, procedures and processes. This requires a commitment from both supervisors and subordinates (Cox, 1994:237-240; Robbins, 2001:14-15; Thomas, 1991:100-102, 164-165).

It could be deducted that diversity provides organisations with competencies, skills, abilities, experiences and personalities that enable them to achieve organisational goals and objectives, and to increase performance and productivity. Diversity allows organisations to compete in global markets to expand their business and increase their market shares. It also allows organisations to compete in the labour market for the most competent and qualified employees who possess the competencies and skills that they require. Diversity enables management to utilise its entire workforce optimally and to treat all employees equally. This enables employees to use their creative skills to produce new and better goods and services in order to satisfy customers needs and wants. The diverse workforce can draw from different experiences, competencies and skills to provide innovative ideas and solutions to complex problems. However, like all other systems, managing diversity presents challenges that will be discussed below.

### **3.5.3 Challenges of Managing Diversity**

A diverse workforce also presents challenges that should be dealt with. Diversity may have a detrimental effect on group performance, because group employees may perceive that they lack qualities that are required for cohesion. This may cause workgroups to focus on subgroup identities (race and gender), exclusive communication and bias toward others who are not in their subgroup (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:10; Milliken and Martins, 1996:214-215;



Thomas, 1991:105-109).

Diversity can marginalise historically disadvantaged employees who have worked years for organisations. These employees anticipate considerable advancement opportunity through affirmative action. They aim at top and senior management positions and expect fast promotion through the ranks. They may be disappointed when their expectations are not met. Organisations are more eager to affirm and fast-track disadvantaged employees who have potential, are competent and qualified than employees who are older and do not possess these qualities (Milliken and Martins, 1996:214-215; Thomas, 1991:105-109).

Mentoring (see 3.4) is used to facilitate individual adaptation to master functional discipline. However, mentoring becomes a problem when predetermined ceilings are set for disadvantaged employees. For example, in the South African Defence Force women were only promoted to brigadier general. Predetermined ceilings for disadvantaged employees prevent them from achieving self-actualisation and rob organisations of capitalising on employees' abilities, competencies and skills. This prevents employees from using their competencies and skills to increase their performance and productivity and achieving organisational goals and objectives (Milliken and Martins, 1996:214-215; Thomas, 1991:105-109).

There is also increasing concern about harassment and discrimination at work because of diversity. For example, 81% of African-American professionals stated that discrimination in the workplace is still prevalent. Organisations can eliminate harassment against employees by creating an environment of respect and tolerance (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:10).

According to Pederson and Hernandez, (1996:110) communication is a tool to establish effective interaction among the diverse workforce. However, communication can be disrupted

by barriers to communication, which create misunderstandings and misconceptions. There are four major barriers that can influence communication among the diverse workforce. First, language differences. Language is heavily culture-laden. Much more than learning new sound symbols, it involves a historical and traditional heritage. The inability of employees to communicate with one another will hamper productivity. Second, non-verbal communication actions, such as gestures, postures, facial expressions, clothing, touching, eye contact and personal appearance are also necessary to establishing effective communication. Culture has taught certain people to communicate what they feel and think in a particular manner, but other ethnic groups may resent expression. Third, preconceptions and stereotypes endeavour to fit people into boxes based on previous encounters with the particular ethnic groups. This creates expectations of particular cultural behaviour in a particular way in accordance with the relevant individual's interpretations. Fourth, high level of stress accompanies intercultural communication because of the fear of inappropriate behaviour and attitudes that may be displayed particularly in sensitive situations. Management should encourage employee tolerance, which will help employees to understand and appreciate cultural differences. Management should appoint mentors to protégés to guide them in dealing with the above challenges (Tayeb, 1996:184).

It could be deduced that a diverse workforce is the future workforce on which the success and survival of organisations depend. The South African National Defence Force should train its supervisors in managing diversity. It enables the South African National Defence Force to reflect the demographics of the population and to retain the best employees from diverse backgrounds. A diverse workforce can draw from a wide spectrum of abilities, skills, competencies, experiences and personalities to solve complex work problems. It also allows for different perspectives on situations, which generate fresh ideas and solutions. The South African National Defence Force operate in culturally diverse communities and societies, which allows its workforce to understand and respond to people's needs and wants more accurately.



The above discussion suggested that managing diversity is a better tool to manage disadvantaged employees. However, affirmative action was instituted to deal with past social imbalances, which are discussed below.

#### **3.5.4 Affirmative Action**

The previous subsection discussed how managing diversity manages people uniquely. It treats people as individuals with unique abilities, competencies and skills to be utilised to achieve both organisational and individual goals. It stated that people are resources to be managed effectively, just like other resources, but also that through people the other resources are utilised more effectively. This subsection focuses on affirmative action as a means to address social imbalances and also as a human resource management tool to capitalise on the abilities, skills and competencies of the diverse workforce to increase their performance.

Affirmative action is a business strategy and process aimed at transforming socio-economic environments that have excluded individuals from disadvantaged groups in order for such disadvantaged individuals to gain access to opportunities based on their potential (Carrell et al. 1999:63). It is a process that creates greater equality of opportunity, it is temporary and flexible and not in accordance with rigid quotas (Human, 1993:3; Ibid, 1996:74). It can be reviewed as a pro-active development to overcome constraints and more effectively utilise latent human resources (Sachs, 1991:59; Thomas, 1992:3). It is aimed at creating equal employment opportunities for all by ensuring that workforces are composed in roughly the same proportions as the whole of the population (Cronje et al. 2001:7).

According to the above definitions, affirmative action is designed to achieve equal employment opportunities for all employees. It does not duly threaten the career aspirations or expectations

of current incumbents who are competent at their jobs. It is designed to eliminate discriminatory obstacles and employment practices that discriminate against disadvantaged minority groups, and replaces them with practices that benefit the disadvantaged employees. It creates a workplace that reflects the demographics of South Africa, where employees can achieve self-actualisation. It creates a human resource pool from which unused potential can be drawn, developed and optimally utilised.

Affirmative action is a corporate strategy and process aimed at transforming the socio-economic environment by being an integral part of human resource management and by creating equal employment opportunities for all employees. It seeks out individuals whose abilities have not been developed with the objective of assisting them to meet the employer's standard; develops programmes that ensure the corporate advancement of disadvantaged employees when they become qualified. Affirmative action provides special training to overcome challenges that minorities encountered as a result of societal and institutional discrimination. It is a means for establishing an environment that is conducive to sound management-subordinate relationships.

Affirmative action covers all activities designed to eliminate the effects of social imbalances to create a society where everyone has the same chance to succeed (Carrell et al. 1997:63; Leap and Crino, 1993:77-78; Sachs, 1991:59; Thomas, 1992:3).

Affirmative action is the responsibility of managers at different hierarchical levels. The perceived failure of affirmative action may be ascribed to top executive and senior line managers who are not committed to affirmative action programmes. It means hands-on and proactive involvement, not just commitment at social functions and in annual reports. The success of the disadvantaged employees depends on the necessary support systems that should be effective and functional (Carrell et al. 1997:27, 55-56; Cook, 1991:124-125; Cronje et al. 2001:461-463; Government Gazette 23 April 1998:12-13; Human, 1993:11-12, 31; White Paper



on Affirmative Action, 1998:12).

It could be deducted that affirmative action is not a predetermined quota system that allows access to certain individuals, while excluding others. It is seen as a proactive human resource management strategy to train, develop, motivate and optimally utilise employees, who otherwise would not have been utilised. It does not lower work standards, but elevates the disadvantaged employees to improve their abilities, skills competencies and increase performance. It provides equal employment opportunities to the diverse workforce. Therefore, the historically disadvantaged employees should first be affirmed before equal employment opportunities are instituted. This will allow the disadvantaged employees to be empowered before they can compete with their advantaged counterparts. Disadvantaged employees should be hierarchically appointed and provided with the necessary support systems (mentorship and fast-tracking) (Cannon, 1994:304-305; Jamieson and O'Mara, 1991:10; Schwella et al. 1996:41).

According to Hellriegel et al. (2001: 101-102) the influx of women entering the labour market is fast narrowing the male-female employment gap. The remuneration gap between men and women is also narrowing as women are appointed to senior and top management positions in organisations at the same remuneration rate. The effect of such changes poses certain challenges for the organisation. Management needs to accommodate women by providing high-quality, affordable childcare and flexible work hours. This allows women to spend quality time at work and home, which reduces absenteeism and can lead to increased productivity. The competencies and managerial skills that women bring to organisations strengthen the inefficiency of their male counterparts. This is also true for the South African National Defence Force that comprise of 19 percent women. A small number of these women are appointed to senior and top management positions (see 6.2). The optimal utilisation of women will improve

the performance of work groups and increase productivity (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:418-419; Cronje et al. 2001:83-86).

It could be deduced that affirmative action is a human resource management tool to: (1) recruit, select and appoint employees whose competencies and skills would not have been recognised; (2) train and develop employees with potential that otherwise would not have been developed; (3) optimally utilise employees who otherwise would not have been utilised. Affirmative action is a motivational tool to: (1) encourage disadvantaged employees to achieve self-actualisation; (2) stimulate disadvantaged employees to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity. Affirmative action is an organisational cultural tool to: (1) create an environment in which disadvantaged employees can achieve the above; (2) formulate policies and establish practices that positively influence employees' behaviour. The above deductions could also be applied to the South African National Defence Force.

There are arguments against affirmative action as a tool to effectively manage disadvantaged people. Affirmative action benefits only those disadvantaged employees who possess the potential that organisations require. Organisations do not have sufficient resources to accommodate all the disadvantaged employees because there are more disadvantaged employees than privileged. For example, there are a limited number of senior and top management positions that can be filled by disadvantaged employees. Affirmative action negates young talented Asians, coloureds and whites who have the potential, but because of broad representation and quota systems do not qualify. The above arguments could also be found in the South African National Defence Force.



### 3.6 CONCLUSION

The study indicates that managing for productivity improvement is toward better use of the potential available through human resources. Human resources are the organisation's most essential resource because it is the only resource that can add value to other resources by designing, constructing, controlling and managing those resources. Human resources use physical resources to increase their performance, which enhances productivity. Human resource management creates open channels of communication, leading to building trust and commitment between supervisors and subordinates. It ensures that the workforce is trained, developed, empowered and motivated to achieve self-actualisation, individual and organisational goals and objectives, and increases their performance, and enhances productivity.

Effective human resource management is needed during the twenty-first century to ensure the optimal utilisation of a diverse workforce, to increase the organisation's performance and productivity. The management of human resource functions, activities, policies and practices are the means through which management may ensure the optimal utilisation of a diverse workforce. These policies and practices should be culture free, bias free and discrimination free; they should accommodate the entire workforce, but should also pay attention to the needs and wants of the individual employee.

Human resource planning is the mechanism that enables management to predict and project human resource requirements to satisfy future supply and demand. Human resource planning ensures that the organisation has a large pool of people from which to select candidates to fill the immediate and future human resource requirements. It enables organisations to recruit, select and retain the best employees. The best employees give the organisation a competitive edge. Human resource planning enables the organisation to meet its strategic goals and mission.

It enables management to deal with the needs and desires of the diverse workforce by instituting policies and practices that are effective, flexible and friendly. It ensures that the best candidates are appointed to appropriate positions.

Through human resource development, employees are developed in relation to their abilities, capabilities and competencies. Management should empower and equip employees with competencies and skills so that they can perform their duties, responsibilities and achieve organisational goals. Training and development empower the employees to increase their performance and productivity. Training keeps employees abreast of the latest technological advancement and helps them raise the standard of competency. Special development programmes should be instituted to accommodate disadvantaged employees, to enable them to master their functional disciplines, increase their performance, enhancing productivity. Managers should also be developed so that they are able to increase the organisation's effectiveness, performance, productivity and manage corporate challenges.

A diverse workforce is the future workforce on which the success and survival of organisations depend. Managers should therefore be trained in managing diversity. It enables the organisation to reflect the demographics of the population and to retain the best employees from diverse backgrounds. Managing diversity enables management to utilise employees in relation to their abilities, skills and competencies in positions where they can best achieve the organisation's goals. Supervisors should accept that the diverse workforce consist of different people, but that each subordinate is a valuable asset with unique competencies, skills, abilities, experiences and personalities that can be used to contribute toward increased performance and productivity.

Affirmative action to provides the South African National Defence Force with opportunities for developing historically disadvantaged employees to overcome the fear of inferiority and become



more assertive in achieving self-actualisation. It can eradicate social imbalances and introduces equal employment opportunities for the disadvantaged employees. It provides a pool of qualified and motivated Non-Statutory Force employees who can be used to fill human resource requirements.

Chapter 3 served as a major resource to determine the extent to which human resource management empowers employees with competencies, abilities and skills, which they use to increase their performance, and which in turn enhances productivity. It served as a means to determine the effectiveness of human resource management in the South African National Defence Force. The effectiveness of the workforce depends on how employees are utilised and motivated. The next chapter discusses motivation as the second independent human resource variable that influences the dependent variable, productivity.

## CHAPTER 4

### MOTIVATING A WORKFORCE

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 dealt with the dependent variable, productivity. It discussed the meaning of productivity and alluded to the resources that influence and increase it. It focused on human resource variables, the vital resource that influences productivity, because it adds value to the physical variables by designing and reconstructing them to produce consumable goods and services. It also discussed a productivity index, which serves as a measurement to determine the level of productivity of an organisation.

In chapter 3 the first independent human resource variable, human resource management is discussed. Human resources are the major resource that influences productivity because it has the ability to control and manage other resources. Supervisors are increasingly taking responsibility for recruitment, selection, development and utilisation of their subordinates, because they recognise that the labour market from which they recruit their subordinates is diverse. Human resource management matches people's abilities, competencies and skills with the job, so that the best people are appointed in the most appropriate positions. This enables supervisors to capitalise on subordinates' competencies and skills, which they can use to improve their performance and increase productivity. Human resource management is supported by three integrated factors that ensure its effectiveness. Human resource planning ensures that the organisation has a large pool from which to select candidates to meet the immediate and future human resource requirements. Human resource development ensures that people are trained and developed to fill human resource requirements. Managing diversity ensures that people with unison abilities, competencies and skills are optimally utilised to achieve increased performance and productivity.

Human resource management ensures that the right people are recruited, selected and appointed (human resource planning discussed in 3.3). These people are developed (human resource development discussed in 3.4) to fill appropriate positions and utilised according to the opportunities offered by their differences (managing diversity discussed in 3.5). To get the best out of people management need to use different motivational techniques, because people have different needs and wants.

Chapter 4 deals with the second independent human resource variable, motivation, which is used to achieve self-actualisation and individual and organisational goals and objectives. Motivation is used to enhance employees' competencies, skills and performance, so that they can increase productivity. This chapter discusses the meaning of motivation, categories of motivation theories and performance appraisals as mechanism for ensuring that motivation is linked to performance. These theories serve to set the scene for further application in the analysis of the case at hand and the recommendation towards enhancing productivity in the South African National Defence Force.

## **4.2 THE MEANING OF MOTIVATION**

Motivation is an inner state which energises and sustains human behaviour to achieve goals (Armstrong, 1996:40; Hume, 1995:9). It is the driving force that moves people to do what they want to do (Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:1-2; Johnson and Redmond, 1998:54-56). Motivation consist of the forces influencing an employee to initiate and direct behaviour (Gerber et al. 1998:257; Gibson et al. 1994:144). According to the above definitions, motivation is concerned with: what energises human behaviour, what directs such behaviour and how this behaviour is maintained or sustained.

First, this conceptualisation points to energetic forces within individuals that drive them to behave



in certain ways. The seeds are the employee's abilities, competencies and skills that should be nurtured and developed. This role should be fulfilled by managers who are responsible for motivating subordinates and providing opportunities for development and achievement (Ivancevich, 1995:56). Second, the behaviour of employees' is directed toward something. The growth process gives meaning to the self-concept that enables subordinates to achieve self-actualisation and organisational goals and objectives. Third, management should maintain positive behaviour by influencing subordinates to achieve their goals. They can improve employees' abilities, competencies and skills by training and developing them. These actions will reinforce the intensity of employees' drives and the direction of their efforts and energy (Lussier, 1997:360).

The next section discusses how the three motivation theories function interdependently to create an environment that allows them to influence employees' performance.

### **4.3 MOTIVATION THEORIES**

Motivation theories fall into three categories: content theories, process theories and reinforcement theory. Content theories of motivation explain the dynamics of employees' needs, such as why people have different needs at different times. By understanding employees' needs, management can discover what motivates them. Process theories of motivation do not directly explain how needs emerge. Instead, they describe the processes through which needs are translated into behaviour. Process theories explain why someone with a particular need engages in a particular direction, with intensity and persistence of effort to reduce the need tension. Reinforcement theory answers the question: what can managers do to get subordinates to behave in ways that meet the organisational goals and objectives? It deals with how subordinates behave or act to satisfy a need.

Figure 4.1 illustrates the groups of motivation theories that will be discussed in this chapter. The

FIGURE 4.1: MAJOR MOTIVATION THEORIES

SOURCE: LUSSIER (1997:363)

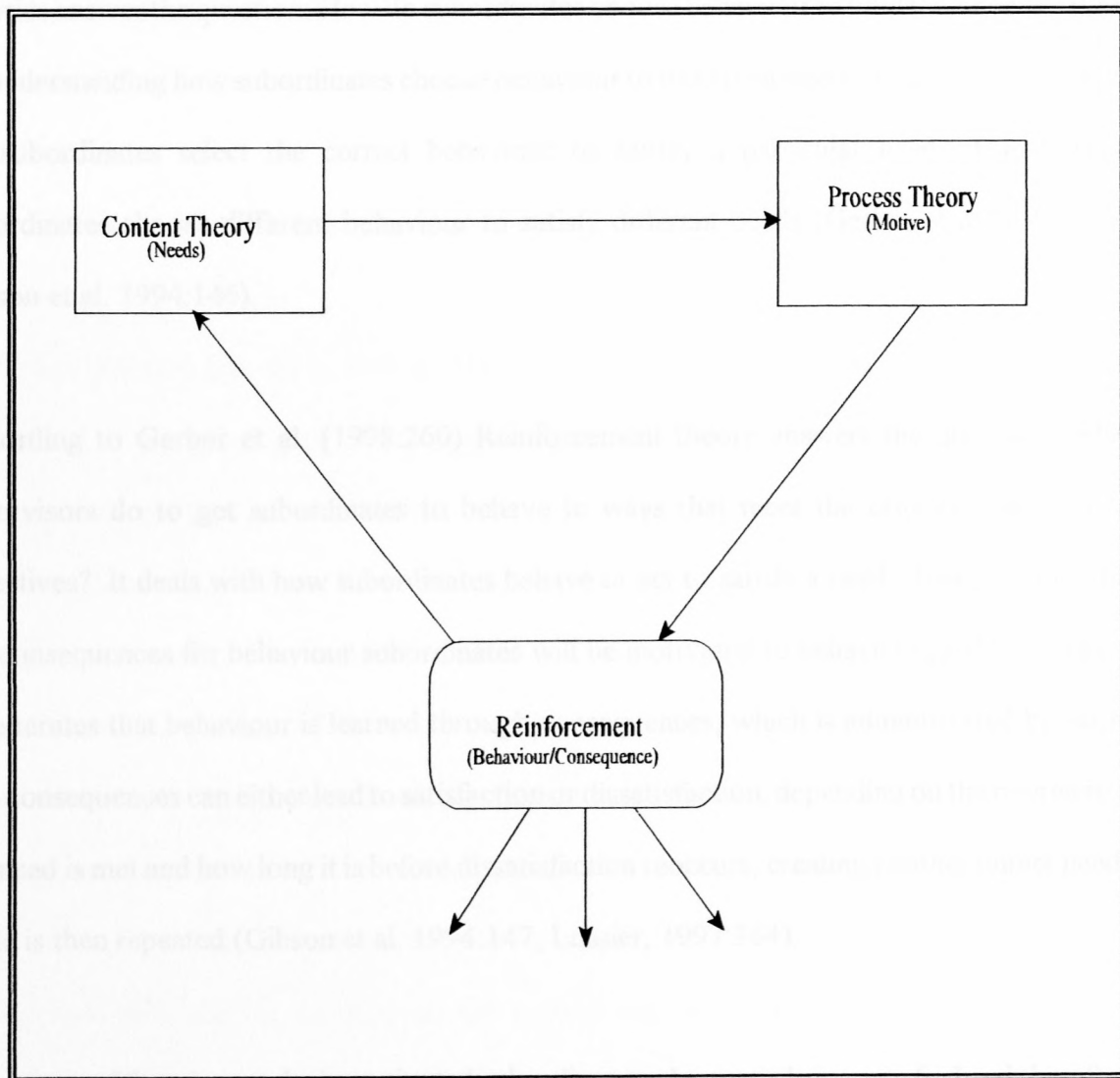


figure shows that the groups of theories are complementary; each group of theories refers to a different stage in the motivation process. Each group of theories answers a different question. According to Lussier, (1997:363) Content motivation theories answer the question: What needs do subordinates have that should be met on the job? It focuses on identifying and understanding employees' needs. It deals with unmet needs that could be satisfied at work. Process motivation theories answer the question: How do subordinates choose behaviour to fulfil their needs? It focuses on understanding how subordinates choose behaviour to fulfil their needs. It deals with motive: how do subordinates select the correct behaviour to satisfy a particular need? This means that subordinates choose different behaviour to satisfy different needs (Gerber et al. 1998:257-259; Gibson et al. 1994:146).

According to Gerber et al. (1998:260) Reinforcement theory answers the question: What can supervisors do to get subordinates to behave in ways that meet the organisational goals and objectives? It deals with how subordinates behave or act to satisfy a need. It argues that through the consequences for behaviour subordinates will be motivated to behave in predetermined ways. It reiterates that behaviour is learned through consequences, which is administered by managers. The consequences can either lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction, depending on the degree to which the need is met and how long it is before dissatisfaction reoccurs, creating another unmet need. The cycle is then repeated (Gibson et al. 1994:147; Lussier, 1997:364).

The group of theories results in motivated subordinates whose needs are satisfied and therefore able to achieve organisational goals, increased performance and productivity. Human resource management (discussed in Chapter 3) is the means by which these activities are accomplished. Organisational culture (discussed in Chapter 5) creates the environment in which these activities can be met. The next section discusses the content theories of motivation that deals with why people have different needs at different times and what supervisors can do to satisfy those needs.



## 4.4 CONTENT THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Content theories of motivation seek to understand employees' needs and why people have different needs at different times. By understanding subordinates' needs, supervisors can discover what motivates them. Figure 4.2 illustrates a comparison of the content theories that will be discussed in the subsections below: Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory, Alderfer's ERG Theory, Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory and McClelland's Theory of Learned Needs.

### 4.4.1 Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

There are different schools of thought about the influences of motivation on the performance of employees. The physiological theory suggests that humans are motivated to act in a specific way in an attempt to satisfy a series of innate needs. Maslow advocates that all individuals have a set of human needs, prioritised on an ascending scales. These needs are physiological, safety and security, belonging, esteem and ego and self-actualisation. The physiological need centers around needs related to survival, which include food, water, sleep and basic work conditions. Safety and security needs relate to one's physical and emotional environment and include a desire for stability, security, freedom, safe working conditions and job security. The sense of belonging relates to one's desire to be accepted by others, friendship, to be loved and to interact with fellow employees. Esteem and ego include the need for self-respect, self-esteem and recognition for accomplishments. Self-actualisation is the need for self-fulfillment and to accept work assignments that challenge one's abilities, competencies and skills (Gerber et al. 1998:260-261; Gibson et al. 1994:148-149; Lussier, 1997:364; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:67-68; Steers et al. 1996:13-15).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs proposes that behaviour is primarily motivated by the lowest unsatisfied need at the time. This means that as soon as one's need is satisfied, another takes its place. The next

FIGURE 4.2: CONTENT THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

SOURCE: McSHANE AND VON GLINOW (2000:67)

Maslow's Needs Hierarchy	Alderfer's ERG Theory	Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory	McClelland's Learned Needs Theory
Self-actualisation	Growth	<b>Motivators</b>  Achievement Personal growth Responsibility Advancement Recognition	Need for Achievement
Esteem		Relatedness	<b>Hygienes</b>  Supervisor relations Co-worker relations Job security Company policies Working conditions
Belongingness	Need for Affiliation		
Safety	Existence		
Physiological			

higher (unsatisfied) need becomes a motivator of behaviour. This is known as the satisfaction-progression process. Even if the individual is unable to satisfy a higher need, he or she will be motivated by it until it is eventually satisfied. It is only when the need is crucial for survival that it is engaged. This process is unending. It continues from birth to death; humans therefore continuously exert their effort (work) to satisfy their needs (Gerber et al. 1998:262-263; Gibson et al. 1994:148-149; Hall, 1992:13-14; Hume, 1995:11-15; Lussier, 1997:364).

According to Maslow's need hierarchy employees' basic needs should first be satisfied before the next higher need emerge. Management should therefore satisfy employees' basic needs, so that they can increase their performance.

#### **4.4.2 Alderfer's ERG Theory**

According to McShane and Von Glinow, (2000:68) Alderfer's ERG Theory groups human needs into three broad categories: existence, relatedness and growth. These needs correspond to Maslow's physiological and safety needs. Relatedness needs refer mainly to Maslow's belongingness needs. Growth needs correspond to Maslow's esteem and self-actualisation needs. Existence needs include a soldier's physiological and physically related safety needs, such as a permanent job and safe working conditions. Relatedness needs include a soldier's need to interact with his platoon and receive recognition from his platoon leader. Growth needs consist of a soldier's promotion that was achieved through personal effort (Gerber et al. 1998:268; Gibson et al. 1994:152; Lussier, 1997:365).

According to Gerber et al. (1998:268) ERG Theory states that a employee's behaviour is motivated simultaneously by more than one need level. Thus, one might try to satisfy your growth needs by serving a client exceptionally well, even though your relatedness needs are not completely satisfied.



However, ERG Theory applies the satisfaction-progression process described in Maslow's needs hierarchy model, so one need level will dominate a person's motivation more than others. For example, a soldier who is provided food, shelter and safety will fight and not be bothered whether the mail is a day late. ERG Theory includes a frustration-regression process whereby those who are unable to satisfy a higher need become frustrated and regress back to the next lower need level (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:68-69). For example, a soldier is provided food, shelter and safety but is not promoted, the soldier will become frustrated and relatedness needs will again emerge as the dominant source of motivation (Gibson et al. 1994:153-154; Lussier, 1997:366).

It could be deduced that the ERG Theory provides a less rigid explanation of employees' needs. Human needs cluster more neatly around the three categories proposed by Alderfer than the five categories in Maslow's hierarchy. The combined processes of satisfaction-progression and frustration-regression also provide a more accurate explanation of why employee needs change over time. ERG Theory allows management to reach short-term goals by rewarding subordinates for their increased performance, because employees' performance is based on rewards.

#### **4.4.3 Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory**

The Motivator-Hygiene Theory differs from Maslow's and Alderfer's needs hierarchy models because it does not suggest that people change their needs over time. Instead, Herzberg proposes that subordinates are primarily motivated by growth and esteem needs, such as recognition, responsibility, advancement, achievement and personal growth. These factors are called motivators because subordinates experience job satisfaction when they are received and are therefore motivated to obtain them. Job satisfaction is an employee's evaluation of his or her job and work context. Hygienes are extrinsic factors to the work, they affect the extent to which subordinates feel job dissatisfaction. Hygienes include job security, working conditions, policies, co-employee relations

and supervisor relations. Improving hygienics may reduce job dissatisfaction, but they will have no effect on job satisfaction or employee motivation (Gibson et al. 1994:154; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:69).

The Motivator-Hygiene Theory does not view job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as opposites. Improving motivators increases job satisfaction, but it does not decrease job dissatisfaction. Improving hygienics reduces job dissatisfaction, but it does not increase job satisfaction. Moreover, job satisfaction is produced by growth fulfilment and other work content outcomes, whereas job dissatisfaction is produced by the work context. For example, a commander is more concerned about recognition from the general and promotion to the next higher rank than with working conditions and colleagues relations, because the latter would not motivate him or her to achieve self-actualisation (Gerber et al. 1998:264; Gibson et al. 1994:155-156).

Herzberg differs from Maslow's and Alderfer's hierarchy models by suggesting that growth needs (recognition and corporate advancement) represent the only source of motivation. Scholars disagree with Herzberg's hypothesis that work content and recognition are the only sources of employee motivation. Many organisations use financial rewards and other hygiene factors to attract candidates, and motivate subordinates to be at work on time, perform their jobs better and learn new skills. For example, many high-technology companies have found that younger recruits are motivated as much by a 'cool' work environment as by the work they will perform. The work should be interesting, as well as the workplace. Employees' performance are rewarded through recognition, remuneration and corporate advancement (Gerber et al. 1998:264; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:69-70).

#### 4.4.4 McClelland's Theory of Learned Needs

McClelland's Theory of Learned Needs focuses on three needs: achievement, affiliation and power. Subordinates with a high need for achievement want to accomplish reasonably challenging goals through their own efforts. They prefer working alone rather than in teams because of their strong need to assume personal responsibility for tasks. Subordinates with a high need for achievement also like to be successful in competitive situations and have a strong need for unambiguous feedback regarding their success. The need for achievement involves the drive to succeed and excel. This is evident in subordinates who assume personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems (Gerber et al. 1998:267; Gibson et al. 1994:157; Lussier, 1997:367-368; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:72).

According to McShane and Von Glinow, (2000:72) need for affiliation refers to a desire to seek approval from others, conform to their wishes and expectation, and avoid conflict and confrontation. Subordinates with a strong need for affiliation want to form positive relationships with co-employees. They try to project a favourable image of themselves and take other steps to be liked by co-employees. Subordinates with a high need for affiliation actively support others and try to smooth out conflicts that occur in meetings and other social settings. Subordinates with a high need for affiliation tend to be more effective than those with a low need for affiliation in coordinating roles, such as helping diverse departments work on joint projects. They are also more effective in positions where the main task is to cultivate long-term relations with prospective customers. Subordinates with high need for affiliation prefer working with others, rather than working alone and they tend to have better attendance records and they tend to be better at mediating conflicts. However, they tend to be less effective at allocating scarce resources and making other decisions that potentially generate conflict (Gerber et al. 1998:267; Gibson et al. 1994:158-160; Lussier, 1997:369).



Need for power refers to a desire to control one's environment, including people and material resources. Commanders with a high need for power want to exercise control over subordinates and maintain their leadership position. They frequently rely on persuasive communication, make more suggestions in meetings and tend to publicly evaluate situations more frequently. The need for power takes two forms: personalised and socialised. Commanders with a high need for personalised power enjoy their power for its own sake and use it to advance their career and other personal interests. They desire loyalty from subordinates and gain satisfaction from dominating them (Gerber et al. 1998:268; Gibson et al. 1994:157-149; Lussier, 1997:369; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:73).

Commanders with a high need for socialised power seek to help subordinates by training and developing them, but also have a strong sense of altruism and social responsibility. They are concerned about the consequences of their own actions on subordinates. McClelland argues that effective leaders should have a high need for socialised power rather than personalised power. In other words, leaders should exercise their power within the framework of moral standards. The ethical guidance of their need for power develops follower trust and respect for the leader, as well as commitment to the leader's vision (Gerber et al. 1998:268; Gibson et al. 1994:157-149; Lussier, 1997:369; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:73).

The Content Theories of motivation explain the dynamics of employees' needs. It explains that subordinates have different needs at different times, because needs are deficiencies that energise behaviour to satisfy those needs. Supervisors should know employees' needs, so that they know what motivates employees. Supervisors should also know the different needs level at which subordinates are, so that they can satisfy those needs.

The next section discusses the process theories, which deals with how people choose the correct behaviour to fulfill their needs.

## **4.5 PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION**

The previous section discussed how content theories of motivation seek to understand employees' needs, and why people have different needs at different times. It emphasised that by understanding employees' needs, management can discover what motivates them. This section discusses the process theories, which explain why someone with a particular need engages in a particular direction, with intensity and persistence of effort to reduce the need tension. The following theories will be discussed below: the cognitive evaluative theory, the goal-setting theory and the expectancy theory.

### **4.5.1 The Cognitive Evaluative Theory**

The Cognitive Evaluative Theory is based on two notions: first, the notion of competence motivation. People are motivated to perform well at tasks to the extent that task performance provides a feeling of accomplishment. Second, the notion of personal control; feelings of accomplishment can be experienced only when people feel responsible for their own behaviour. This theory is particularly concerned with accomplishments that result from doing an excellent job (Robbins, 2001:164). The Cognitive Evaluation Theory argues that extrinsic rewards used by organisations as payoffs for excellent performance by subordinates may reduce their performance. Extrinsic rewards may negatively influence intrinsic interest in the task, where the job is not intrinsically motivating and subordinates are no longer enthusiastic about exerting too much energy when performing their tasks. For example, Eldon is the best company commander who yearly receives a bonus. Although his performance has drastically decreased the past six months he still received a bonus in December 2001. Presumably, if extrinsic rewards are associated with performance, control over performance shifts from the performance to the extrinsic reward. Making pay contingent on performance decreases the employees' feeling of control and sense of

accomplishment (Armstrong, 1996:43).

Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards serve as motivators and stimulants of inner satisfaction and achievement. The workforce should know their progress and how they will be evaluated. People want to be involved in solving work problems and improving their performance. They want to understand what determines the security of their jobs (Robbins, 2001:164). People want direct connection between their performances and rewards, because rewards are central to meeting their needs and to creating a motivating environment. These types of motivation will not only affect performance, but will also exert an influence on productivity. Intrinsic rewards are more likely to occur when subordinates are involved in meaningful work (Campbell et al. 1990:151; Jamieson and O' Mara, 1991:110-116).

It could be deduced that the Cognitive Evaluative Theory functions on a process of exchange, which is based on performance and rewards. Rewards are extrinsic. If there are no rewards, there is no increase in performance, which affects productivity. The Cognitive Evaluation Theory entails a motivational approach that is used by transactional leaders (see 5.4.1) to motivate subordinates to increase their performance and productivity. This theory focuses on people's perception of their working environment and the way in which they interpret and understand it. The Cognitive Evaluative Theory influences subordinates' performance and productivity therefore, subordinates should be involved in the decision-making processes and formulating productivity goals of their respective departments. Subordinates should be informed of the importance of their performance and how they contribute toward the organisation's productivity. They should also be recognised and rewarded for excellent performance.



#### 4.5.2 The Goal-Setting Theory

The Goal-Setting Theory states the opposite of the cognitive evaluation theory. The Goal-Setting Theory predicts that specific hard goals produce a higher level of output than does the generalised goal of “do your best.” The specificity of the goal itself acts as an internal stimulus. If factors such as ability and acceptance of the goals are held constant, then the more difficult the goal, the higher the level of performance. The degree of difficulty of the goals also influences the quality of performance. The more difficult and specific the goals, the greater the quality of performance, but the easier and more vague the goals, the lower the output (Johnson and Lussier, 1997:374). The quality of performance is subject to other activities, such as participation, incentives and individual differences, which influence performance primarily through goal setting and continuous feedback from both subordinates and supervisors (Redmond, 1998:54). Goal setting can enhance employees’ motivation by applying the following principles: First, the general objectives or tasks to be done should be determined. They should also stipulate how the performance will be measured. Second, the standard to be reached should be explicitly stated. The goals should be specific rather than vague and they should be challenging yet attainable (Campbell and Campbell, 1990:147; Hume, 1995:10-12).

According to Johnson and Redmond, (1998:55-56) a specific time span for the attainment of the goals should also be determined. If multiple goals are set, they should be rank-ordered to ensure that effort can be directed in proportion to the different goals that they do not conflict. Subordinates should be given the opportunity to participate in goal-setting, because they are inclined to set more challenging goals. Subordinates should believe that goals can be achieved and should exert their effort to achieve them. Positive feedback from supervisors is necessary in motivating subordinates to set and achieve challenging goals. Supervisors should provide the necessary resources and reward subordinates for their achievement (Campbell and Campbell, 1990:148; Hume, 1995:13-15).

It could be deduced that the Goal Setting Theory influences subordinates' performance and productivity therefore, supervisors should set goals that are challenging and subordinates should believe that goals can be achieved by exerting their effort. The more challenging the goals, the more determined and persistent the subordinates should become. This helps subordinates to achieve organisational goals. They should not only be involved in formulating organisational goals but should also be given the necessary resources to achieve them. This allows subordinates to accept co-ownership for the achievement of organisational goals. Regular feedback should be given to subordinates. This allows them to know how they are progressing and how to apply their effort and energies to achieve organisational goals.

#### **4.5.3 The Expectancy Theory**

The Expectancy Theory is based on the assumption that subordinates make some evaluations of the subjective, expected utilities associated with the investment of time and effort in the execution of tasks. Rather than investing time and effort in behaviours that maximise returns, subordinates compare their outputs to the outputs of others. This allows them to choose a course of action that is fair or equitable (Bruce and Pepitone, 2001:2-4; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:760). The Expectancy Theory predicts that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and its attractiveness to the employee. For example, a platoon will work harder to complete the mission before due date if they know that effort will be rewarded (a bonus or salary increase) (Armstrong, 1996:44-45; Robbins, 2001:166).

According to Bruce and Pepitone, (2001:2-4) the Expectancy Theory allows supervisors to reward subordinates in relation to their performance. This reinforces positive behaviour and motivates subordinates to increase their performance. It also allows supervisors to train and develop

subordinates, so that they can use their competencies and skills to increase their performance. This will strengthen subordinates' belief in their abilities and performance. Figure 4.3 illustrates that subordinates can exert individual effort to increase their performance, which enhances productivity (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:76). Increased performance should be recognised and rewarded (see Figure 4.4) by the organisation. The rewards satisfy employees' expectation and personal goals. The cycle is repeated (Armstrong, 1996:44-45; Robbins, 2001:166).

According Dressler, (1992:205) rewards, as illustrated in Figure 4.4 are necessary in motivating subordinates to increase their performance because, it confirms subordinates' belief in their own efficiency, it determines the level of subordinates' motivation, and it is an expression of supervisor's appreciation for excellent work. The reward is either extrinsic or intrinsic and is based on performance, which leads to both satisfaction and subsequent performance, as illustrated in Figure 4.4 (Armstrong, 1996:45-46; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:509). The employee feels satisfied (intrinsic reward) because he or she has accomplished the assignment given to him or her, and is also overjoyed when management gives a bonus (extrinsic reward) as an appreciation for excellent work. If subordinates see productivity as a means of satisfying their needs, then they will exert their effort and energies to increase their performance and productivity (Pearson, 1991:145; Robbins, 1990:39, 40; Steers et al. 1996:87-91).

Once employees' needs are satisfied through rewards that have been conditioned upon productivity, then the process is likely to be repeated. Doubt in a soldiers' abilities to achieve valued goals that affect their sense of self-worth, or uncertainties about being able to do things that bring satisfaction to their life, creates depression. Employees' high sense of efficiency fosters cognitive constructions of effective actions and strengthens employees' self-confidence. Therefore, self-confidence is strongly related to future job performance. To accomplish challenging goals creates personal satisfaction and increases soldiers' interest in what they are doing. Expectations of personal



FIGURE 4.3: EXPECTANCY THEORY

SOURCE: MCSHANE AND VON GLINOW (2000:76)

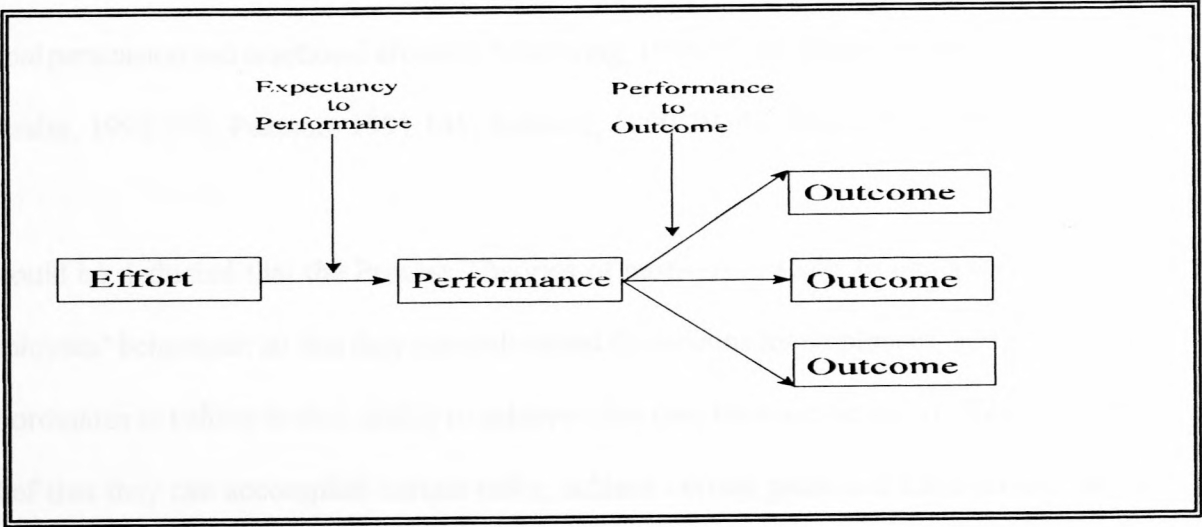
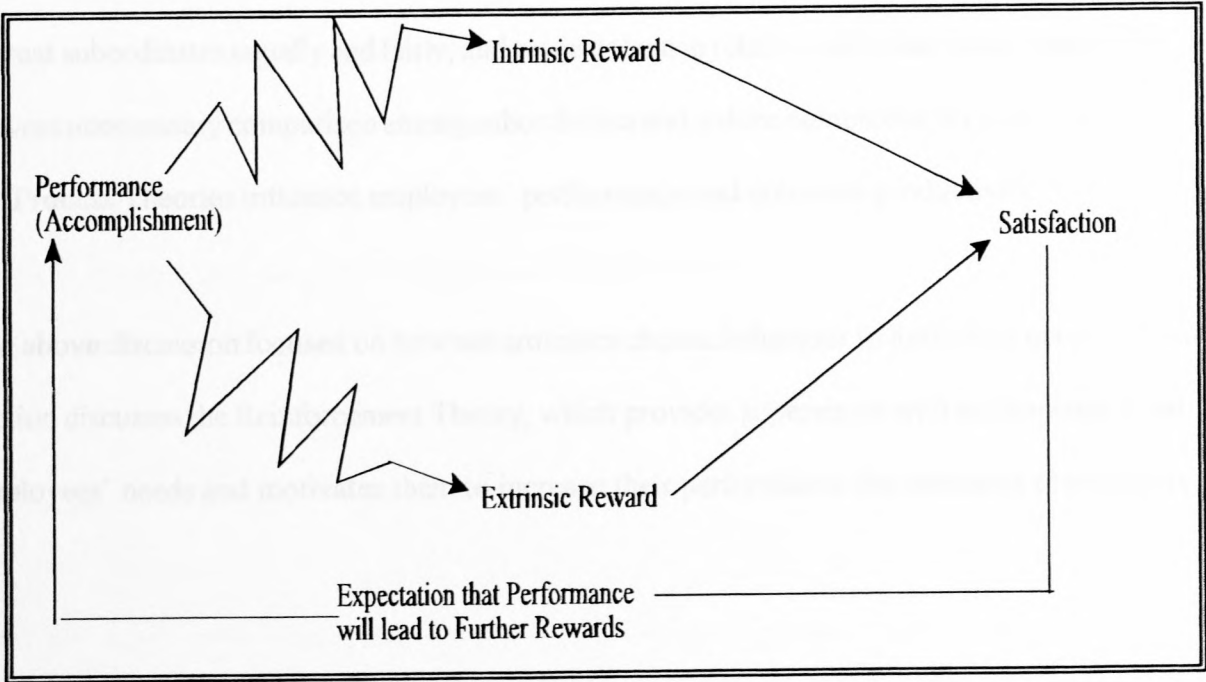


FIGURE: 4.4: PERFORMANCE REWARD

SOURCE: DRESSLER (1992:205)



efficiency and competence are acquired in many ways, for instance performance accomplishments, verbal persuasion and emotional arousal (Armstrong, 1996:45-46; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:509; Dressler, 1992:205; Pearson, 1991:145; Robbins, 1990:39, 40; Steers et al. 1996:87-91).

It could be deduced that the Process Theories of motivation seeks to understand the motive for employees' behaviour, so that they can understand the reasons for employees' action. They motivate subordinates to believe in their ability to achieve what they have set out to do. This strengthens their belief that they can accomplish certain tasks, achieve certain goals and learn certain things. This enables them to exert their effort and energies to achieve more challenging goals. The Process Theories foster employees' belief in their own competence by rewarding their accomplishments, developing their competencies and skills, and motivating them to increase their performance. They allows supervisors to extrinsically reward subordinates who perform exceptionally well. Supervisors should praise subordinates regularly for a job well done. The Process Theories allow supervisors to treat subordinates equally and fairly, and reward them in relation with their performance. This will prevent unnecessary comparison among subordinates and reduce complaints. By achieving the above the Process Theories influence employees' performance and enhances productivity.

The above discussion focused on how subordinates choose behaviour to fulfill their needs. The next section discusses the Reinforcement Theory, which provides supervisors with mechanisms to satisfy employees' needs and motivates them to increase their performance that enhances productivity.

## **4.6 THE REINFORCEMENT THEORY**

The previous sections discussed Content Theories, which are intended to identify and understand subordinates' needs and how to determine how subordinates choose behaviour to fulfill their needs. It emphasised that subordinates change their behaviour in order to satisfy a particular need. The motive of subordinates is the driving force that causes them to change their behaviour. This section discusses the Reinforcement Theory which highlights how to satisfy subordinates' needs and motivates them to increase their performance. The Reinforcement Theory plays a prominent role in understanding changing behaviour to satisfy needs and to repeat positive behaviour.

According to Gibson et al. (1994:176) the Reinforcement Theory proposes that subordinates will be motivated to behave in predetermined ways through the consequences of behaviour. Reinforcement Theory uses behaviour modification (apply Reinforcement Theory to get subordinates to do what you want them to do) and operant conditioning (types and schedules of reinforcement). Skinner (Skinner, 1969:489) stated that behaviour is learned through experiences of positive and negative consequences. The two important considerations used to modify behaviour are the types of reinforcement and the scheduling of such reinforcement, discussed in the subsections below (Steers and Porter, 1991:65-66).

### **4.6.1 Types of Reinforcement**

The four types of reinforcement are positive, avoidance, extinction and punishment. Positive reinforcement is a method of encouraging continued behaviour by offering attractive consequences



(rewards) for desirable performance. For example, the platoon that completes the assignment on time is rewarded by the company commander. The praise is used to reinforce punctuality. Other types of reinforcement include pay, promotions, time off, increased status, and so forth. Positive reinforcement is the best motivator for increasing productivity (Gibson et al. 1994:176; Lussier, 1997:373; Steers and Porter, 1991:66-68).

Avoidance is also called negative reinforcement and is used to encourage continued desirable behaviour. The employee avoids negative consequence. For example, the platoon leader was reprimanded once, since then he has never been late for work. There is no actual punishment; it is the threat of punishment that controls behaviour. Standing procedures and rules are designed to get subordinates to avoid certain behaviour. However, rules in and of themselves are not a punishment; punishment is only given if the rules are broken (Gibson et al. 1994:177; Lussier, 1997:374; Steers and Porter, 1991:69).

Extinction attempts to reduce or eliminate undesirable behaviour by withholding reinforcement when the behaviour occurs. For example, a platoon was not given leave for the long weekend because their assignment was completed late. The commander should withhold rewards until the platoon performs to set standards. From another perspective, commanders who do not reward good performance can cause its extinction. The employee may stop performing at the expected level (Gibson et al. 1994:177-178; Lussier, 1997:374; Steers and Porter, 1991:69-70).

Punishment can be used to provide an undesirable consequence for undesirable behaviour. For example, the platoon leader was reprimanded for being late for work. Methods of punishment include harassing, taking away privileges, probation, fining, firing and so forth. Using punishment may reduce the undesirable behaviour, but it may cause other undesirable behaviour, such as poor

morale and lower productivity. Punishment is the most controversial method and the least effective at motivating subordinates (Gibson et al. 1994:177; Lussier, 1997:374; Steers and Porter, 1991:70-71).

#### **4.6.2 Scheduling of Reinforcement**

The second reinforcement consideration in controlling behaviour is when to reinforce performance. The two major classifications are continuous and intermittent reinforcement. Continuous reinforcement takes place when a response is reinforced each time it occurs. For example, a simulated armoured vehicle has an automatic counter that lets the gunner know, at any given moment, exactly the amount of ammunition that was used. Intermittent reinforcement occurs only after some instances of a response and not after each response. Reinforcers can be delivered by a supervisor on the basis of a time interval or ratio schedule. A time interval is when a response is reinforced after a specific time interval. A ratio schedule is when the schedule specifies the responses required for each reinforcement. There are four alternatives (Gibson et al. 1994:178-179; Lussier, 1997:374; Steers and Porter, 1991:74-76):

- Fixed interval schedule – on the 15<sup>th</sup> of each month soldiers receive their salary;
- Variable interval schedule – soldiers go on orders now and then for work well done;
- Fixed ratio schedule – high achievers only receives a bonus in December;
- Variable ratio schedule – the troops are give leave for a long weekend now and then.

The Reinforcement Theory focuses on getting subordinates to behave in predetermined ways, through consequences provided by managers. The theory indicates that the organisation's rewards reinforce the employees' performance when subordinates perceive the reward system as "paying off" for good performance. The reward will reinforce and encourage continued good performance.

Rewards also play a major role in the equity theory. Ratios are generally better motivators than intervals, because it does not create expectation that a reward is due to the employee. The response motivates the employee to repeat positive behaviour; therefore, variable ratios are the most powerful schedule for sustaining behaviour (Gibson et al. 1994:178-179; Lussier, 1997:374).

It could be deducted that the Reinforcement Theory influences employees' performance and productivity. It uses the positive, avoidance and extinction reinforcement to motivate subordinates to repeat positive behaviour. It uses the fixed and variable ratio schedules to stimulate subordinates to constantly increase their performance. When subordinates equate productivity with rewards and as a means of satisfying their needs then they will exert their effort to increase their performance.

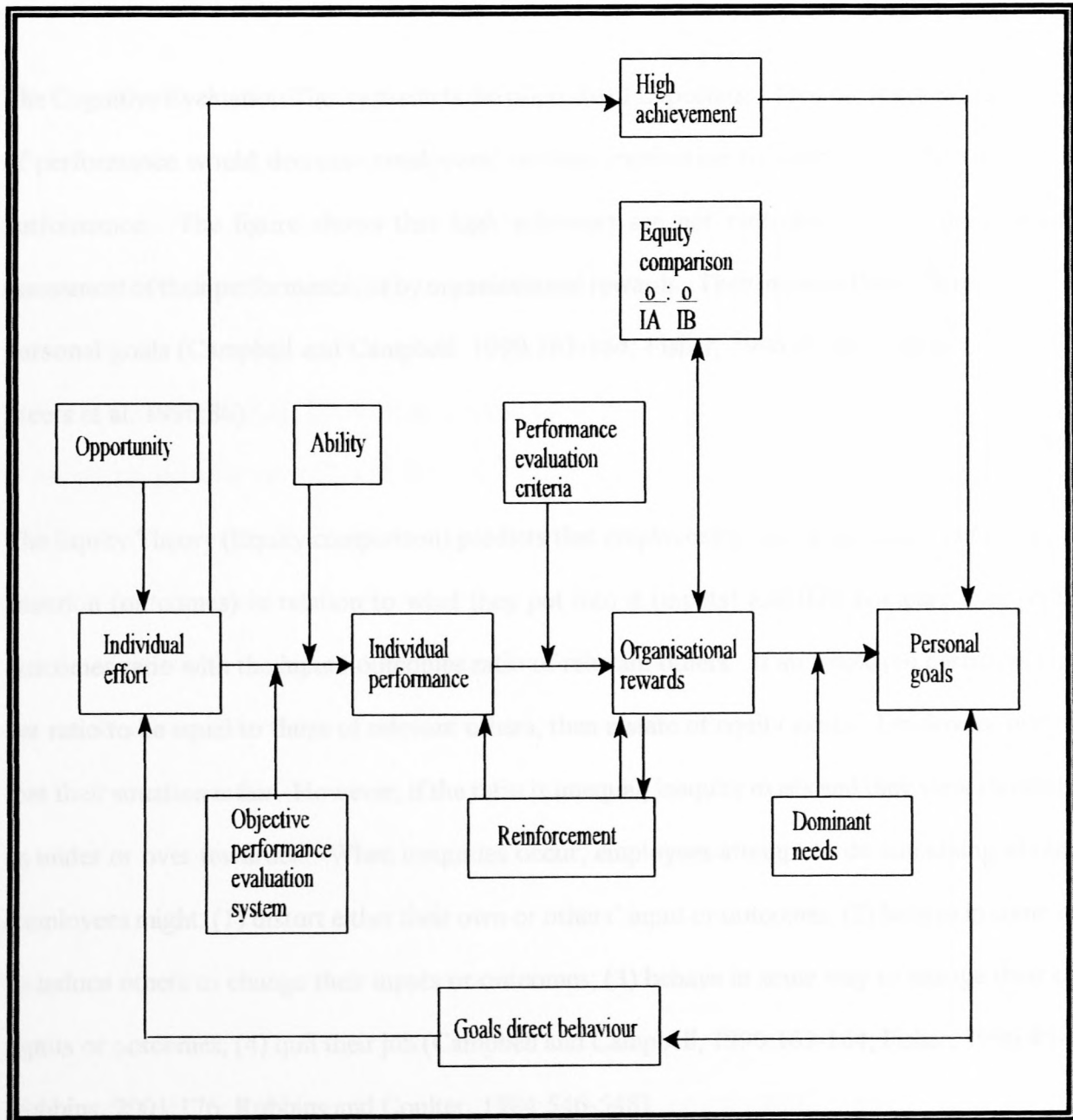
Figure 4.5 illustrates the integration of the groups of motivational theories. The figure shows that opportunities can either aid or hinder individual effort. The subordinates use their individual effort to improve individual performance (Robbins, 2001:175; Steers et al. 1996:86). Individual performance divides subordinates into two categories, achievers and ordinary subordinates (non-achievers). The organisation recognises this distinction and rewards achievers for their exceptional performance. Rewards encourage subordinates to set personal goals that direct their behaviour. The subordinates exert greater effort to receive greater rewards. The cycle is repeated. This is an illustration of the Goal-Setting Theory (Fisher, 1996:46; Gibson et al. 1994:178-179; Lussier, 1997:374; Steers and Porter, 1991:74-76).

The Expectancy Theory predicts that subordinates will exert a high level of effort if they perceive that there is a strong relationship between effort and performance, performance and rewards and satisfaction of personal goals. Each of these relationships in turn is influenced by certain factors. For effort to improve performance, subordinates should have the requisite ability to perform. It also



FIGURE 4.5: INTEGRATING MOTIVATION THEORIES

SOURCE: ROBBINS (2001:174)



means that the performance appraisal system (see 4.7) should be perceived as fair and objective. The performance-reward relationship will be strong if the employee perceives that it is performance, rather than seniority or personal favourites, that are rewarded. The Expectancy Theory ends with the reward-goal relationship (Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:47-49; Fisher, 1996:45-47; Hall, 1992:13; Steers et al. 1996:84-86).

The Cognitive Evaluation Theory predicts the opposite of Expectancy Theory. It states that rewards of performance would decrease employees' intrinsic motivation to exert their effort to increase performance. The figure shows that high achievers are not motivated by the organisation's assessment of their performance, or by organisational rewards. They increase their efforts to achieve personal goals (Campbell and Campbell, 1990:163-164; Fisher, 1996:45-47; Robbins, 2001:175; Steers et al. 1996:86).

The Equity Theory (Equity comparison) predicts that employees perceive what they get from a job situation (outcomes) in relation to what they put into it (inputs) and then compare their inputs-outcomes ratio with the inputs-outcomes ratio of relevant others. If an employee perceives his or her ratio to be equal to those of relevant others, then a state of equity exists. Employees perceive that their situation is fair. However, if the ratio is unequal, inequity exists and they view themselves as under or over rewarded. When inequities occur, employees attempt to do something about it. Employees might: (1) distort either their own or others' input or outcomes; (2) behave in some way to induce others to change their inputs or outcomes; (3) behave in some way to change their own inputs or outcomes; (4) quit their job (Campbell and Campbell, 1990:163-164; Fisher, 1996:45-47; Robbins, 2001:176; Robbins and Coulter, 1984:546-548).

In order to continue the motivation process, management needs a managerial tool that can motivate

and evaluate employees' performance, so that they can be rewarded according to their performance. The next section discusses performance appraisals as a managerial tool to evaluate employees' performance.

#### **4.7 PERFORMANCE APPRAISALS**

The above discussion stated that motivation is the drive within subordinates that moves them to do whatever they want to do. These drives should be activated, stimulated and stretched by managers so that subordinates can increase their performance and productivity. It discussed content theories that enable supervisors to identify and understand subordinates' needs. It dealt with unmet needs that could be satisfied at work and discussed how process theories seek to determine employees' choice of behaviour to fulfill their needs. It emphasised that subordinates change their behaviour in order to satisfy a particular need. The motive of subordinates is the driving force that causes them to change their behaviour. The Reinforcement Theory discussed mechanisms that supervisors can use to satisfy subordinates' needs. These mechanisms encourage subordinates to change their behaviour in order to satisfy their needs. Commanders should train, develop and motivate troops, so that they can use their potential to achieve self-actualisation. To maintain motivated subordinates supervisors should reward them both intrinsically and extrinsically. This helps subordinates to associate performance with rewards (see 4.5), which in turn motivates subordinates to repeat such behaviour.

This section discusses performance appraisals as a managerial tool to evaluate employees' performance. Performance appraisals serve as an audit for the organisation to determine the effectiveness of its employees. Such a control system, with a combination of performance feedback and the setting of performance goals, enables performance appraisal to accomplish its three major functions. First, the motivation of subordinates as discussed above; second, training and development



of subordinates as discussed in section 3.2.2; and third, employees' performance as discussed in this section.

Performance appraisal is a system to improve the performance of employees. It enables supervisors to distinguish between the performance of subordinates (Armstrong, 1996:260-261; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:38-39; Hellriegel et al. 2001:252). Performance appraisal is a process that evaluates the degree to which subordinates accomplish their assigned tasks. The outcome of performance appraisal enables supervisors to make decisions that affect subordinates' retention, remuneration, termination, promotion, transfer and training (Carrell et al. 1997:258; Cascio, 1991:74; Latham and Wexley, 1994:4; Milkovich and Boudreau, 1991:91).

Performance appraisal as a means to improve employees' performance allows for communication between appraisers and appraisees concerning the achievement of performance goals. As a process, performance appraisal makes provision for input, transformation and output. Input includes employees' abilities, competencies and skills, and organisational resources. It is during this phase that performance goals are set. Transformation involves the evaluation and adjustment of performance goals and achievement. It is during this phase that supervisors should check on the progress of performance goals. Output is the achievement of performance goals. The achievement of performance goals results in the improvement of employees' performance, which increases the organisation's productivity. As a process, performance appraisal can neither take place once a year nor in secret. Subordinates should be aware of the instrument and process that will be used to measure their performance. Performance appraisal also affects employees' continued employment, career development and corporate advancement (Cascio, 1991:74; Latham and Wexley, 1994:4). Management's purpose for using performance appraisal will determine the benefits that they will derive from it. Management can either use performance appraisal as a development tool to develop

employees' competencies, skills and abilities, that influence their performance, or they can use it to assess employees' performance. The type of performance assessment, and the way in which it is applied, may influence the employees' performance. This may present challenges to both supervisors and subordinates, because some subordinates may be unhappy with poor performance and blame the instrument. These challenges may either positively or negatively influence the subordinates' performance. The subordinates' negative responses may cause supervisors to take action to normalise the situation (Milkovich and Boudreau, 1991:91).

The role of a supervisor in appraising the performance of subordinates and the different methods of assessment that can be used will be discussed in the subsections below.

#### **4.7.1 The Role of a Supervisor**

Performance appraisal determines the employee's performance, which influences the organisation's performance. Performance appraisal has two distinct objectives, namely operational and developmental. Operational objectives are the achievement or contribution of subordinates to accomplish team, departmental and corporate objectives. At the corporate level, they are related to the organisation's mission, core values and strategic plans. At departmental or functional level, they are related to corporate objectives, which spell out the specific mission, targets and purposes to be achieved by a functional department. At team level, they are related specifically to the purpose of the team and their contribution to achieve departmental and corporate goals. To achieve this, supervisors should provide subordinates with a job description, which defines their duties and responsibilities so that they know what is required of them. Developmental objectives are concerned with what subordinates should do and learn to improve their performance, knowledge, competencies and skills. Training develops employees' abilities, competencies and skills, which they use to

increase their performance. Performance feedback is a primary source for development, because subordinates want to know their progress and the feelings of their supervisors about their performance (Armstrong, 1996:260-261; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:540-542; Fisher, 1996:39-41, 103-105).

Performance appraisal is the responsibility of supervisors to: measure performance, improve performance and exercise leadership. Measurement is a key aspect of performance appraisal, because if one cannot measure it one cannot improve it. Supervisors cannot define objectives or performance standards unless there is agreement and understanding on how performance will be measured. Performance measures should provide evidence of whether or not the intended result has been achieved and the extent to which subordinates have produced that result. This generates feedback information, used by managers and subordinates to monitor their own performance (Fisher, 1996:18-20; Hume, 1995:38; Katz, 1997:457).

According to Armstrong, (2002:127-129) performance appraisal lies at the heart of motivation, because it is through the appraisal discussion that the employee receives feedback (see Figure 4.6) from their supervisors, colleagues and peers about their performance. Feedback is positive in the sense that its aim is to point the way to further development and improvement, not simply to tell subordinates where they have gone wrong (negative feedback). However, feedback should report on shortcomings as well as achievements. Feedback should always be factual. It should refer to results, events, critical incidents and significant behaviours, which have affected performance in specific ways. Therefore, feedback should be recognised and accepted by subordinates as a matter of fact, not of opinion. This allows for participative management and opens communication between supervisors and subordinates. It allows for opportunities to discuss and review performance goals (Carrell et al. 1997:260; Jamieson and O'Mara, 1991:41). Subordinates' current performance increases when they receive feedback that specifies performance goals. Therefore, supervisors should regularly coach and counsel their subordinates, not just twice-a-year when performance



appraisal is done. Subordinates seem to accept suggestions for improved performance if the suggestions are fewer and given in a less concentrated form than in the case with the comprehensive annual appraisals. This means that each person seems to have a tolerance level for the amount of criticism he or she can take. Should this level be exceeded, it becomes increasingly difficult for a person to accept responsibility for his or her shortcomings. Supervisors should not keep a record of wrongs in order to have enough material to conduct a comprehensive performance appraisal review. This hampers the primary purpose of the performance appraisal programme, that of giving feedback to subordinates about their performance (Latham and Wexley, 1994:5; Mc Gregor, 1991:2; Milkovich and Boudreau, 1991:104-106).

The performance appraisal discussion provides the means by which the five key elements of performance appraisal can be achieved. These are (Armstrong, 2002:128-130; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:539-540; Fisher, 1996:69-70; Mink et al. 1993:16-17, 20-21):

- Measurement - assessing results against agreed targets and standards;
- Feedback - giving the appraisee information on how he or she has been doing;
- Positive reinforcement - emphasising what has been done well so that it will be done even better in the future and supervisors only make constructive criticisms that help subordinates to improve their performance;
- Exchange of views - ensuring that the discussion involves a full, free and frank exchange of views about what has been achieved, that focuses on what needs to be done to achieve more, that it establishes what appraisees think about their work, and that the role supervisors play in guiding and managing subordinates is also discussed;
- Agreement - the joint understanding of what should be done by both supervisors and subordinates to improve performance and deal with other work problems.

Supervisors can motivate subordinates to increase their performance through coaching, counselling and mentoring as discussed in 3.4.3. Performance appraisal enables supervisors to evaluate subordinates' performance and determines their contribution toward the achievement of

organisational goals and objectives. It also enables supervisors to determine the development needs of subordinates and to train them accordingly. The performance appraisal discussion focuses on positive reinforcement to improve employees' performance. The discussion is also a means of dialogue between appraisers and appraisees to discuss employees' performance. It is also an opportunity for appraisers to give feedback to appraisees concerning the achievement of performance goals. Feedback is an event that supervisors should plan for because it influences subordinates' attitude toward performance and promotes an understanding so that appropriate (corrective) action can be taken. Feedback reveals that something is more positive or has gone wrong and that action should be taken to prevent disaster. Therefore, the environment for giving feedback should be such that it motivates subordinates to increase their performance, rather than demotivate them (Carrell et al. 1997:260; Jamieson and O'Mara, 1991:41; Latham and Wexley, 1994:5; Mc Gregor, 1991:2; Milkovich and Boudreau, 1991:104-106).

#### **4.7.2 Methods of Assessment**

Employees' performance can be assessed by the absolute methods of performance assessment. The absolute methods include the narrative approach and rating scale. The narrative approach allows the appraiser to describe in his or her own words, the work performance and behaviour of the employee during a given period. The report may be in the style of an essay, or a controlled written report that asks for answers to certain headings or guidelines. The appraiser should give written feedback to the appraisee, which serves as a guide for personal development and reference to evaluate performance goals. The rating scale is a list of a number of factors, such as job-related qualities or behaviours, or certain personality traits, which are used to measure to which extent subordinates possess these factors. The rating scale can either be numerical or alphabetical, represented on a continuum from very high to very low (Hellriegel et al. 2001:253; Latham and Wexley, 1994:5-6; Mc Gregor, 1991:3).

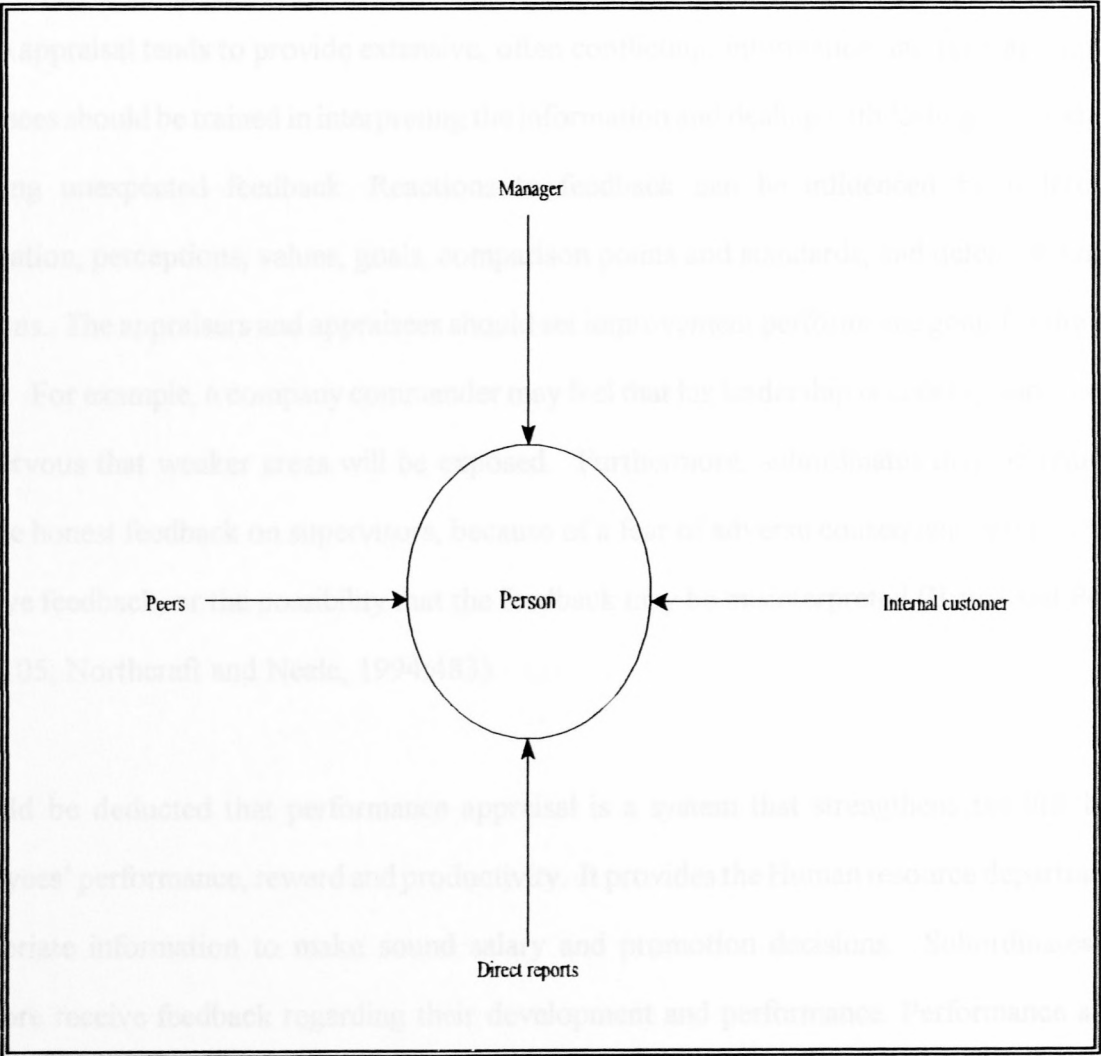
The absolute methods assess employees' performance with reference to some standards of performance and do not compare subordinates with other subordinates as the comparative method does. It allows supervisors to commit themselves in writing by stating what they require of the subordinates. This enables subordinates to clarify perceptions and understand what is expected of them. The feedback from supervisors indicates how subordinates are progressing and the effort they should exert to achieve their performance goals (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:542; Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:45; Mikovich and Boudreau, 1991:105).

Figure 4.6 illustrates that the 360-degree performance appraisals require a wide range of people (higher managers, peers, subordinates, suppliers and customers) to give feedback on a employee's performance. For example, a company commander might be assessed by his or her platoon leaders on communication and support, and by his or her peers on teamwork. Customers may be asked to report on satisfaction, and suppliers may be asked to give feedback on the supervisor's performance and demonstration of competencies. The immediate supervisors are the main source that provides information about the appraisees. They have the best knowledge of their subordinates' job content, objectives, interpersonal relationships and performance. The immediate supervisor works closely with his or her subordinates and has ample opportunity to observe their behaviour and performance (Armstrong, 2002:116-118; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:542). The appraisee does a self-assessment and provides the information to the appraiser. An interview between the supervisor and subordinate takes place to discuss achievements and challenges, and to jointly determine performance goals for the ensuing period. Supervisors should help subordinates to blend their personal goals with the organisation's objectives. This will reduce the conflict that may arise between the subordinates and supervisors. Supervisors should check the progress of subordinates to ensure that they are achieving their goals. The frequency depends on subordinates' experience and competencies. Supervisors should also give subordinates feedback, so that they know how they are progressing (Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:103; Northcraft and Neale, 1994:482).



FIGURE 4.6: THE 360 DEGREE PERFORMANCE

SOURCE: ARMSTRONG (2002:117)



According to Armstrong, (2002:116-118) the 360-degree appraisals can be a valuable development tool, but they require very careful design and implementation if they are to be used for continuous evaluation of performance. Responses should be confidential, especially upward appraisals, or alternatively contributors may be identified and therefore held accountable. The selection of people to complete 360-degree appraisals should be made by the appraisee in consultation with the appraiser. Objective criteria, such as interdependency and opportunity to observe behaviour, should be used to justify the choice of respondents. Beardwell and Holden (2001:543) states that the 360-degree appraisal tends to provide extensive, often conflicting, information and both appraisers and appraisees should be trained in interpreting the information and dealing with feelings associated with receiving unexpected feedback. Reactions to feedback can be influenced by differences in information, perceptions, values, goals, comparison points and standards, and defensive emotional reactions. The appraisers and appraisees should set improvement performance goals for the ensuing period. For example, a company commander may feel that his leadership is under question and may feel nervous that weaker areas will be exposed. Furthermore, subordinates may be reluctant to provide honest feedback on supervisors, because of a fear of adverse consequences if they provide negative feedback, or the possibility that the feedback may be misinterpreted (Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:105; Northcraft and Neale, 1994:483).

It could be deducted that performance appraisal is a system that strengthens the link between employees' performance, reward and productivity. It provides the Human resource department with appropriate information to make sound salary and promotion decisions. Subordinates should therefore receive feedback regarding their development and performance. Performance appraisal promotes a sound management-subordinate relationship that stimulates the achievement of self-actualisation and organisational goals and objectives. Performance appraisal is a means for creating and maintaining a climate of success in the organisation. However, like all other systems, performance appraisals pose challenges that will be discussed below.

#### 4.8 CHALLENGES OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISALS

The previous section discussed how supervisors can use performance appraisal as a means to improve the subordinates' performance. It alluded to how coaching, counselling and mentoring serve as means to influence employees' behaviour and performance. It discussed the different methods of performance appraisal that can be used to assess employees' performance.

This section discusses the challenges that managers face in dealing with performance appraisal. One of the challenges that management faces is to find a balance between being a counsellor and a judge. It is expected of supervisors to execute a contradictory function of judge and counsellor of their subordinates. The conflict between these functions is seen during performance appraisal. For example, a commander conducts a judgemental interview with a company commander on Wednesday and on Thursday motivates him to lead his company to war. The outcome of performance appraisal determines the behaviour of employees. Therefore, a positive appraisal will motivate subordinates to improve their performance. However, a negative appraisal may have devastating results. The subordinate may be disturbed by the criticism and may not accept the outcome of the evaluation (Armstrong, 2002:128-129; Fisher, 1996:163-166; Hume, 1995:44; Latham and Wexley, 1994:1).

The employee may challenge the validity of the appraisal instrument. This negative behaviour may continue for at least twelve weeks. It is unrealistic to expect a person in such a state of mind to switch mental attitudes to a state of readiness. The reasons for resistance may be the underlying conventional approach. First, unless the interview was handled at the appropriate time, place and environment, it may constitute a violation of the integrity of the employee's personality. Second, it is expected of supervisors not only to judge their subordinates, but also to express it in writing. Third, the perception that supervisors are leaders who strive to assist subordinates to achieve performance goals and organisational objectives is contrary to the role of judge. Fourth, supervisors cannot evade making judgements about subordinates. However, supervisors have found ways to



bypass this either by ignoring appraisals or going through the motions but not abiding by the results (Armstrong, 2002:128-129; Fisher, 1996:163-166; Hume, 1995:44; Latham and Wexley, 1994:1).

Another challenge is that supervisors can be biased; they can either positively or negatively assess the performance of their subordinates. Their personal values and biases may replace organisational standards, especially when high ratings are given to ordinary subordinates and average ratings are given to high achievers. For example, the commander gave Sox, the company commander an unfair low assessment that prevented him from being promoted to the Group Headquarters. Some people might argue that this is a managers' problem and not a system problem. This truism, if accepted, means that managers are part of the system. Therefore, performance appraisal cannot be viewed as a managerial tool but as a process involving managers, and as such the process is inadequate (Carrell et al. 1997:258; Cascio, 1991:76; Hume, 1995:44; Maurer and Taylor, 1994:233).

Supervisors may appraise men and women differently. Research indicates that men are evaluated more favourably than equally qualified women who work in a predominately male profession. The same is true of men working in a predominately female profession. In the context of merit, remuneration and promotions, women are rated less favourably and with greater negative bias by raters who hold traditional stereotypes about women. The gender of a rater, as well as the relationship with a ratee, also influences the evaluation. This truism is evident in the number of women who occupy senior and top management positions in the South African National Defence Force (Armstrong, 1996:153; Carrell et al. 1997:258; Hume, 1995:44; Maurer and Taylor, 1994:233).

Supervisors tend to give higher ratings to subordinates who are of the same racial group as they are. The effect declines as the percentage of diverse subordinates in the work group increases. The diversity of subordinates in the same unit can influence supervisors to refrain from being biased towards their own race and appraise subordinates on their actual performance. Supervisors are faced

with two challenges: first, they should ensure that workgroups are diverse. Second, they should ensure that gender discrimination does not continue (Carrell et al. 1997:258; Cascio, 1991:76; Hume, 1995:44; Maurer and Taylor, 1994:233).

The inherent subjectivity of the assessment process may lead to claims of favouritism, bias and arbitrariness. For example, a commander may give his favourite platoon leader a high assessment on all factors, even though the platoon leader's actual performance in these areas may be weaker or unobserved. This is known as the halo effect. Conversely, a negative rating in one aspect could lead to other performance factors being evaluated negatively. This is called the horns effect. Commanders may find it difficult to identify and measure the distinct contribution of each subordinate, particularly those subordinates who constantly attend long military courses. There may be many external factors beyond the control of the individual employee that affect their performance, such as resources, processes, technology and working environment. In terms of expectancy theory (see 4.5.3), the attainment of rewards should be tightly linked with individual performance for rewards to act as an incentive. If there is a long timespan between appraisals, managers may place greater importance on more recent performance (the recency effect), thereby possibly ignoring incidents that had occurred earlier (Armstrong, 1996:150; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:543; Hellriegel et al. 2001:253).

Management's resistance to appraisals may be due to a perception that they are being placed in the 'embarrassing' situation of having to pass judgement on and criticising their fellow employees. Line managers may lack the required technical skills and people management skills to be able to conduct an effective appraisal. Furthermore, a lack of time and resources may hinder line managers in providing comprehensive and effective performance reviews. Moreover, managers may perceive the performance appraisal process as a bureaucratic time consuming exercise (Armstrong, 1996:152; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:545; Hellriegel et al. 2001:253).

It could be deducted that the human factor, subjectivity, affects supervisors' judgement in certain respects. It allows certain factors to dominate supervisors' judgement in assessing subordinates. Supervisors may overrate or under- rate subordinates by giving high (halo effect) or low (horns effect) ratings on all factors. The former may motivate subordinates to increase their performance and the latter may demotivate employees, which might influence co-employees. Supervisors' programmes may be of such a nature that they do not have time to conduct an effective performance appraisal review (discussion). This causes supervisors to focus more on recent performance than on incidents that occurred earlier. Therefore, performance appraisal should be given the necessary time and attention because it affects the performance of subordinates that influences the organisation's productivity.

#### **4.9 CONCLUSION**

Motivation is the inner drive that moves subordinates to achieve whatever they want to do. It allows subordinates to achieve self-actualisation, increase performance and organisational goals and objectives. Motivation is management's responsibility because they should ensure that the workforce is motivated to be at work regularly. Motivation involves encouraging and inspiring subordinates to improve their performance, which increases productivity. The rewards of productivity motivate subordinates to repeat the performance, which increases the organisation's performance and productivity. The workforce is diverse and subordinates cannot be treated alike; managers should therefore use different motivational techniques to motivate the entire workforce. The Content Theories allow supervisors to understand subordinates' needs. It deals with the unmet needs that could be satisfied at work. By understanding subordinates' needs, supervisors can discover what motivates them. The Process Theories allow supervisors to understand how subordinates choose behaviour to fulfill their needs. The motive of subordinates will determine the kind of behaviour they will display. The Reinforcement Theory allows supervisors to influence and change subordinates' behaviour, in order to satisfy their needs, which motivates subordinates



to repeat behaviour.

Performance appraisal improves the organisation's performance through the enhanced performance of employees. Performance appraisal is successful when it achieves organisational goals and objectives and develops employees' abilities, competencies and skills, which they use to increase their performance. Performance appraisal allows for participative management and encourages open communication between supervisors and subordinates. It enables supervisors to distinguish between achievers and non-achievers and to reward excellent performance. Performance appraisal should take place more than once a year, because it allows supervisors and subordinates to review and adjust their performance goals for the remaining period of the year. Supervisors should perform their dual functions of coach and counsellor professionally to increase employees' performance. Performance appraisal is also needed to formulate performance management policies, which influence the behaviour of employees. Supervisors should apply the performance appraisal system fairly and consistently, so that subordinates could be rewarded according to their performance. Supervisors should provide written proof if and when questioned by subordinates, to substantiate their ratings. Performance should be measurable; if not, it cannot be managed and progress cannot be determined. Performance appraisal and motivation are managerial tools that can be used to motivate subordinates to achieve self-actualisation, increase performance and productivity.

Chapter 4 served to determine the extend to which motivation influences subordinates performance and enhances productivity. It served as a means to determine the application of motivation in the South African National Defence Force. The effectiveness of motivation depends on the instrument being used, how it is being applied and the environment in which it is applied. The next chapter deals with creating an environment that is conducive to motivation. It deals with organisational culture and leadership.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapters 3 and 4 respectively explored human resource management and motivation as a means for enhancing productivity. Through human resource management, human resources are acquired and developed as a result of proper planning, and optimally utilised through diversity management. Motivation stimulates employees and further promotes better performance. In both instances the focus is on people.

Chapters 4 dealt with how the second independent human resource variable, motivation, influences performance. It stated that employees will increase their performance when their needs are satisfied. Content Theories of motivation explain the needs of employees. Process Theories then determine the motive for employees' behaviour (performance), while the Reinforcement Theory focus directly on motivating employees to increase their performance. Motivation stimulates employees to use their abilities, competencies and skills to increase their performance, which enhances productivity.

In this chapter, the third independent human resource variable, organisational culture (see 1.2; 2.4; 3.2), are explored. The focus is therefore shifting to the organisation as the body that can either stifle or promote productivity through its nature. In order to improve on productivity, cultural changes may be required.

Organisational culture is difficult to change, understanding where to begin the cultural change process (see 5.3) appears to be necessary for managing organisational behaviour. Studies comparing the performance of American firms with that of European, Japanese and other Asian competitors have introduced concepts of culture and changing culture as possible explanations of differences in competitive effectiveness. This means that discussing human resources related productivity variables without including culture as a specific organisational variable presents an incomplete analysis (Gibson et al. 1994:63).

The organisation's culture should be modified to create a work environment where employees can achieve both organisational and individual goals and objectives (see Figure 5.1). It is also necessary to discuss leadership styles that can change the organisation's culture to accommodate the implementation of the human resource variables. This chapter discusses the meaning and nature of organisational culture and leadership styles that are necessary to transform an organisation towards better productivity. This theoretical analysis contributes to explain the needed transformation of the South African National Defence Force towards better performance.

## **5.2 THE MEANING OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

According to the literature, there are at least three distinctive cultural forms. First, the Latin types, exemplified by French, Italian and Spanish organisations that are characterised by relatively high centralisation, rigid stratification, sharp inequalities among levels and conflict around areas of uncertainty. Second, an Anglo-Saxon type, exemplified by British, United



traditional type, found in third-world developing countries that are characterised by paternalistic leadership patterns, implicit rather than explicit rules, and lack of clear boundaries separating organisational from non-organisational roles. Organisations in this culture focus more on the well-being of the workforce, rather than rewarding the individual performance of employees. This type of culture applies to the case analysis as discussed in Chapters 6 and 7 (Hellriegel et al. 2001:101-102; Tayeb, 1996:83-84).

According to Thompson and Strickland, (2003:420-421) the origins of culture can be traced to the founders of an organisation, their value systems, attitudes, beliefs and philosophy. The leadership creates the symbols and the rituals that constitute the daily practices of the organisation's workforce. Since management determines organisational culture, they should portray clear, visible actions in support of the cultural values and beliefs. Consistency should be the watchword. Management has to provide interpretations of events, without ambiguous meaning, confusion and conflicting results. The appropriate use of symbols and ceremonies are necessary, but should focus on the extrinsic and intrinsic aspects of the job and create a sense of belonging to the organisation (Steers and Porter, 1991:251-252; Tayeb, 1996:83-84).

Organisational culture is a form of ideology, a pervasive set of shared beliefs, values and norms. It is the learned product of the workforce, which has stood the test of time and has served as a collective guide to future adaptation and survival (Ivancevich, 1995:45; Katz, 1997:54, 382). Organisational culture is the level of autonomy that exists in departments and the degree of loyalty expressed by the workforce. It is the way in which the organisation transacts business and the manner in which it treats customers and its workforce (Heap, 1992:86; Milkovich and Boudreau, 1991:62). Organisational culture is the pattern of shared assumptions, values, and

values, beliefs, business principles, traditions, ways of operating and internal work environment (Thompson and Strickland, 2003:420).

According to the above definitions, organisational culture influences the beliefs (see 4.5) and behaviour of the workforce. It is the organisation's way of directing and guiding the behaviour of employees to achieve organisational goals and objectives. It demonstrates the organisation's way of life, of how it conducts business, reacts to growth and responds to society. The assumptions, values and beliefs that represent organisational culture operate beneath the surface of organisational behaviour. They are not directly observed, yet their effects are everywhere. Assumptions represent the deepest part of organisational culture because they are unconscious and taken for granted. Assumptions are the shared mental models that influence employees' worldviews and guide their perceptions and behaviours. For example, a subordinate will never question a commander's order or intention, they simply do as instructed. It is accepted that the commander has the mission in mind and therefore issues the necessary orders. This is shared meaning held by employees that distinguishes the South African National Defence Force from other organisations. Beliefs represent the individual's perceptions of reality. Values are more stable, long-lasting beliefs about what is important. They help employees define what is right or wrong, or good or bad, in the society.

### **5.3 THE NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

The previous section discussed organisational culture as the shared assumptions, beliefs, norms and values that influence employees' behaviour. This section discusses certain factors that

creates an environment where employees' can experience a sense of belonging and being part of the organisation. This section ends by discussing how organisational culture influences employees' performance and managers' role in cultural change.

According to Thompson and Strickland, (2003:428) the adaptive culture helps employees to share a feeling of confidence in the organisation's abilities to deal with whatever threat and opportunities confront them. The employees are receptive to risk taking, experimentation, innovation and changing strategies and practices whenever necessary to satisfy the interest of stakeholders. The adaptive culture focuses employees' attention on the changing needs of customers and other stakeholders, and supports initiative and leadership to keep pace with these changes. The adaptive culture focuses outwardly rather than inwardly. This means that senior management is more interested in the satisfaction of stakeholders than in their own well-being. The underlying mental model is that the organisation will survive and succeed through continuous change. Organisations with adaptive cultures are readily identifiable by their uncanny ability to shift direction with the market. For example, the South African National Defence Force has moved from primarily defending its borders to peace-keeping mission on the sub-continent (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:506; Steers et al. 1996:378-379).

Organisational culture changes behaviour, and instills a work lifestyle in new employees and is also influenced by the behaviour of new employees. Therefore, the workforce adapts their personal values to align with the organisational culture, but to a limited extent only. The quality and style of leadership are crucial in shaping perceptions that will support cultural values and organisational strategy. Managers' words should reflect their actions. What they say in public and state in magazines should be the experience and stories of the workforce. Management



respond in ways that are consistent with organisational expectations. Employees want to belong and be accepted (see 4.5); they therefore abide by the organisational culture. The organisational culture should fit in with societal culture. This will foster adaptation, change, moral and ethical values, which will help employees to make the transition between organisational and societal cultures (Steers and Porter, 1991:251-252; Tayeb, 1996:83-84; Thompson and Strickland, 2003:420-421).

According to Carroll and Buchholtz, (2003:35-40, 214-215) the organisation's culture can potentially influence ethical conduct. Kickbacks and other forms of corruption in the corporate world have been attributed to the American organisational culture. Leaders can develop – with considerable effort and persistence – a culture that supports ethical conduct. To accomplish this, corporate business adopted the following six core values that represent both the organisation's culture and its ethical standards: honesty, integrity, respect, trust, responsibility and citizenship. Although organisational culture can support ethical values, it can also become the source of ethical problems. As mentioned earlier, corporate culture is a form of control because it guides employee decisions and behaviour. All organisations require some control to ensure that employee actions are aligned with organisational objectives (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:506-507). However, strong cultural values may cause employees to risk becoming part of corporate culture that rob them of their individualism. Thus, an organisation's culture should be consistent with society's ethical values and should not be so strong that it undermines individual freedom. Organisational culture is a means to deal with corporate corruption when organisations execute their social responsibilities as good, responsible corporate citizens. This requires managers to be ethical and morally responsible, to reward positive behaviour and punish negative behaviour. This ensures that employees' conduct reflects the required organisational

Since culture is deeply embedded in organisational policies, practices, rules and procedures, it instills in employees a sense of belonging, of being accepted and being part of the organisation. A more pragmatic view of the relationship between an organisation's culture and chief executives is the practice of filling senior management positions from current managerial employees, rather than appointments from outside. It ensures that those who are in control of the organisation have been fully indoctrinated in the organisation's culture. Promotion from within the organisation provides stability and lessens uncertainty. It ensures that other activities are instituted to maintain a given culture, for example, it is much better to promote a colonel to a brigadier general and appoint him as a regional commander than to appoint someone from outside who is not familiar with the South African National Defence Force's culture (Stewart, 1997:29-31; Tayeb, 1996:57-58, 97-98).

There are formal and informal instruments that an organisation can use to introduce, reinforce and perpetuate organisational culture. The former include: recruitment, selection, assessment centre, interviews, promotion criteria, performance appraisal, control measures, discipline (see 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5) and motivation policies (see 4.6). This brings new employees into direct contact with the organisational culture. The latter include social events, a company newspaper, company clothing, for example, wearing of uniforms (Katz, 1997:198). Culture is crucial in developing and maintaining levels of intensity and commitment among employees. Organisational commitment is an individual's psychological bond to the organisation, including a sense of job involvement, loyalty and a belief in the values of the organisation. Commitment includes compliance – a employee accepts the influence of others mainly to obtain something from others; identification – a employee accepts influence in order to maintain a satisfying, self-defining relationship; internalisation – a employee finds the values of the organisation to be

It could be deducted that human resource management policies and practices can be used to reinforce and perpetuate organisational culture. Managers use internal recruitment (see 3.3.2) to appoint employees to senior executive positions. This strengthens the superior-subordinate relationship between employees and management. Managers also use motivational policies to motivate and encourage employees to follow predetermined behaviour, which leads to the achievement of organisational goals and stimulates employees to increase their performance and productivity. The relationship between culture and performance and the manager's role in cultural change towards increased productivity needs to be explored in more depth.

### **5.3.1 Organisational Culture and Performance**

According to Thompson and Strickland, (2003:427) organisational culture serves three important functions. First, culture is a deeply embedded form of social control that influences employee decisions and behaviour. Culture is pervasive and operates unconsciously. This means that culture directs employees in ways that are consistent with organisational expectations. Second, culture is the social glue that bonds employees together and makes them feel part of the organisational experience. Employees are motivated to internalise the organisation's dominant culture because it fulfills their need for social identity. This is increasingly crucial in organisations with global workforces because culture is one of the few means to tie these employees together (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:505). For example, the South African National Defence Force has to manage employees from different racial groups equally. Organisational culture is the one thing that keeps these employees together. Third, culture helps employees to understand organisational events and processes. Employees can do



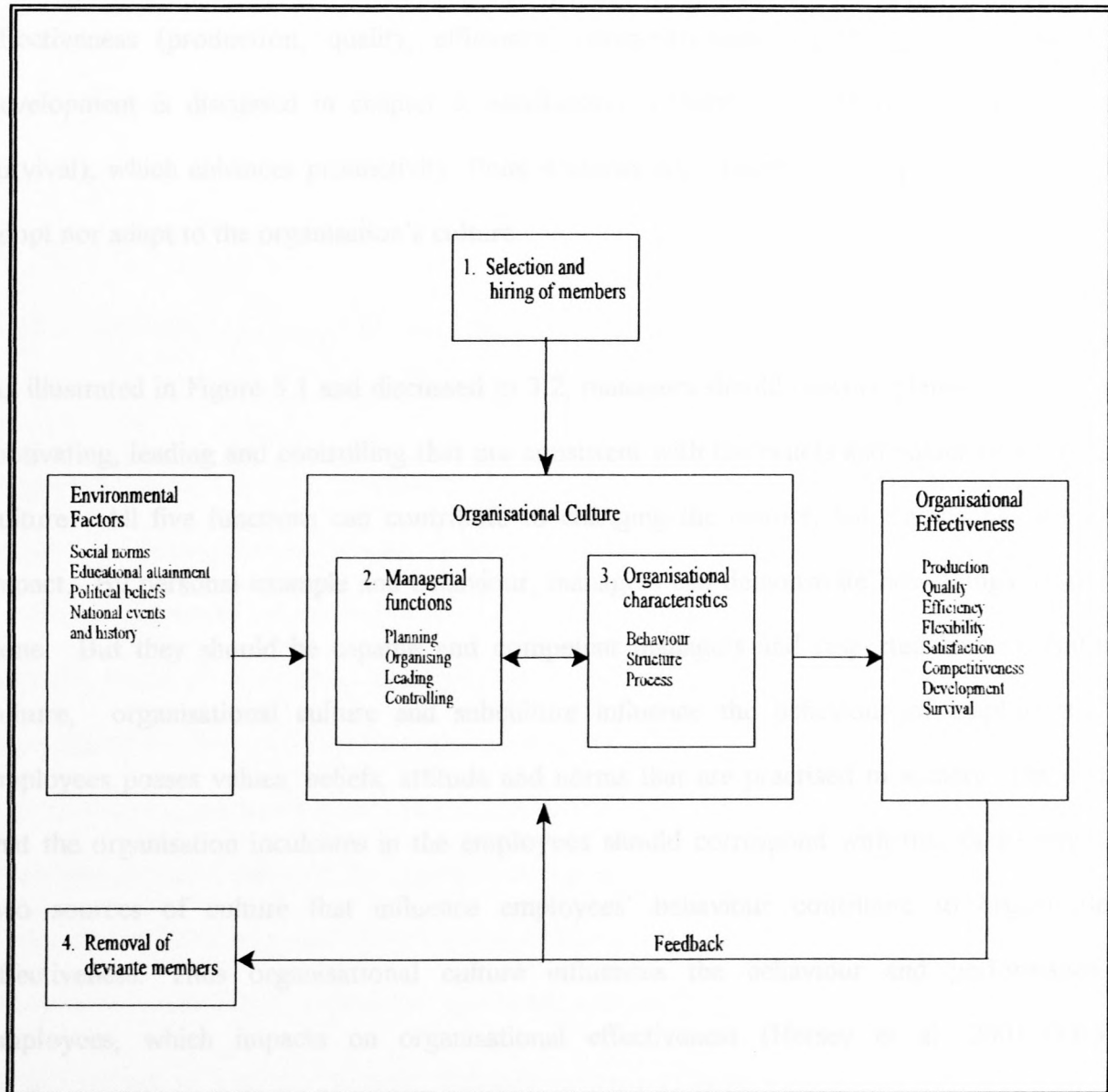
they share common mental models of reality (Steers et al. 1996:377).

Figure 5.1 illustrates that organisational culture is an important cause of organisational effectiveness. First, one should understand that organisational culture, the system of shared values, beliefs, and norms (see 5.2), is the product of the interaction of selection processes, the managerial functions, the organisation's behaviour, structure, and processes; the larger environment in which the organisation operates and the removal process shown in point 4. Second, organisational culture encompasses both managerial functions and organisational characteristics. Management is both a cause of and a part of organisational characteristics. The existing culture of any organisation reflects past and present managerial planning, organising, leading and controlling activities. For example, an organisation that values operation efficiency (quality of output, customer satisfaction, efficient use of resources) does so because management has stated missions, goals and objectives in those terms. These managers evaluate employees in terms of accuracy, for example, minimum number of errors made. Management has created the culture by virtue of their own managerial actions (see 5.3) and they hire and socialise with employees to adopt and accept the important beliefs and values of that culture. Employees who are not well matched with or suited to the organisational culture will leave, voluntarily (resign) or involuntarily (fired). These employees are often isolated and not involved in traditions. They are usually identified through performance management systems (Gibson et al. 1994:63-64; Hersey et al. 2001:343; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:505).

According to (Gibson et al. (1994:63-64) management can intervene to alter the organisational culture, as illustrated in Figure 5.1 at points 1, 2, 3, and 4. The environmental factors determine the quality of employees the organisation will attract and retain. Point 1 refers to human resource planning (see 3.3 and Figure 3.1), which is the first step in the process of human resource management. The process ensures that the organisation attract, select, appoint and

FIGURE 5.1: CULTURE INFLUENCES EFFECTIVENESS

SOURCE: GIBSON et al. (1994:64)



retain the best employees. Point 2 refers to managerial functions that are executed by all managers and leaders (see 3.2). Point 3 shows the organisational characteristics (behaviour, structure and processes) that managers used to influence and change the behaviour and performance of employees. Both points 2 and 3 refer to the transformation phase of the system approach, where resources are used and transformed into output. It increases the organisation's effectiveness (production, quality, efficiency, competitiveness are discussed in chapter 2, development is discussed in chapter 3, satisfaction is discussed in chapter 4, flexibility and survival), which enhances productivity. Point 4 shows what happens to employees who do not adopt nor adapt to the organisation's culture.

As illustrated in Figure 5.1 and discussed in 3.2, managers should practice planning, organising, motivating, leading and controlling that are consistent with the beliefs and values of the desired culture. All five functions can contribute to changing the culture, but leading has a greater impact. By personal example and behaviour, managers can demonstrate how things should be done. But they should be capable and competent managers and respected leaders. National culture, organisational culture and subculture influence the behaviour of employees. The employees possess values, beliefs, attitude and norms that are practised in society. The culture that the organisation inculcates in the employees should correspond with that of society. The two sources of culture that influence employees' behaviour contribute to organisational effectiveness. Thus organisational culture influences the behaviour and performance of employees, which impacts on organisational effectiveness (Hersey et al. 2001:343-344; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:505).

It could be deduced that organisational culture influences performance and productivity by attracting, recruiting, selecting and appointing candidates who possess the abilities,



competencies and skills that the organisation requires. It allows management to formulate policies and institute practices that reinforce and perpetuates behaviour that increases performance. It creates an environment that allows management to use motivational approaches that stimulates employees to achieve self-actualisation, improve their standard of living, quality of life and increases their performance and productivity

The next subsection discusses the role of managers in cultural change because it is a process that they use to influence the behaviour of employees.

### **5.3.2 Manager's Role in Cultural Change**

Organisations also include subcultures located throughout its various divisions, geographic regions and occupational groups. Subcultures enhance the dominant culture by espousing parallel assumptions, values and beliefs. Subcultures help the organisation to align its culture with the needs of customers, suppliers, society and other stakeholders. This takes place as departments and divisions interact with stakeholders. There are also countercultures that directly oppose the organisation's core values. Countercultures create conflict and dissension among employees, but also maintain the organisation's standards of performance and ethical behaviour. It also serves as an important source of surveillance and evaluation of the dominant culture. It encourages constructive discussions and more creative thinking about how the organisation should interact with its environment. Subcultures prevent employees from blindly following one set of values and help the organisation to abide by society's ethical values. It allows and helps employees to give expression to their ideas and feelings about how they understand culture, traditions, norms and values within the context of organisational culture. An inner bonding within the bigger corporate culture results and creates a feeling of belonging to something that is

close to the employees, rather than something removed from their reality (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:499-500; Thompson and Strickland, 2003:422-423).

Cultural change is a lengthy process, which takes 10 to 15 years before it is accepted and becomes a practice and a way of life. It can only be instituted through moderate change facilitated by the empowerment of the workforce. Empowerment seeks to eliminate all the unnecessary rules and procedures that prohibit the employees from effectively achieving organisational goals and objectives. It also removes the limitations that slow employees' response and constrain their actions. The empowered workplace is characterised by job enrichment and job enlargement. It increases employees' abilities, skills and competencies and allows them to use their innovative and creative skills to increase performance and productivity to achieve organisational goals and objectives. It also allows employees to produce new and better goods and services, which in turn provide customers with more options to choose from, satisfying their needs and wants. It provides employees with greater control over decisions about work, allowing them to complete the whole task rather than just a portion of it. The empowered workplace is the creation of a new relationship between supervisors and subordinates. Subordinates are now partners and have ownership of the organisation; subordinates are now decision-makers, not followers; subordinates operate in a working environment where they are exposed to ever-changing conditions (Katz, 1997:213-214; Scott and Jaffe, 1991:4; Stewart, 1994:2; Tayeb, 1996:174, 179; Thompson and Strickland, 2003:378-379).

Training and development provide employees with the appropriate competencies and skills to meet continually changing challenges. Cultural change may only be implemented in a changing environment, the main elements are a change in management and work environment, including

regulations, policies and practices. The former will affect the current workforce, but not dramatically, since the function of the organisation will continue without initial major changes. Such changes will be gradual and unnoticed. The latter implies that the new employees will adapt to the culture of the organisation. The interaction between employees may cause them to influence each other's behaviour. This truism means a heterogeneous workforce has more influence on the organisational culture than a homogeneous workforce (Katz, 1997:213-214; Scott and Jaffe, 1991:4; Stewart, 1994:2; Tayeb, 1996:174, 179).

According to Thompson and Strickland, (2003:378-379) cultural change is a process that takes years to undo traditions, assumptions, values and norms that have become part of employees' lifestyle. Management should eliminate unnecessary policies, procedures and rules that prohibit employees from increasing their performance and productivity. Management should first embrace change and then create an organisational culture and work environment that are conducive to cultural change. The workforce will then follow the new trend set by management.

There are five approaches that management can use to strengthen organisational culture: the action of founders and leaders; introducing culturally consistent rewards; maintaining a stable workforce; managing the cultural network; selecting and socialising new employees. Founders develop the systems and structures that support their personal values. They are often visionaries whose energetic style provides a powerful role model for others to follow (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:513). The founder's cultural imprint often remains with the organisation for decades. In spite of the founder's effect, subsequent leaders can break the organisation away from the founder's values if they make use of transformational leadership applications (see 5.4.1). Transformational leaders strengthen organisational culture by communicating and



enacting their vision of the future. Cultural values are reinforced when leaders behave in ways that are consistent with the vision (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:198).

According to Thompson and Strickland, (2003:429) aggressive cultures may offer more performance-based, individual incentives, whereas paternalistic cultures will more likely offer employees assistance programmes, medical insurance and other benefits that support employee well-being. Organisational stories are rarely written down; rituals and celebrations do not usually exist in procedure manuals. Organisations therefore depend on a stable workforce to communicate and reinforce the dominant beliefs and values. The organisation's culture can literally disintegrate during periods of high turnover and downsizing because the corporate memory leaves with these employees. Corporate culture also weakens during periods of rapid expansion or mergers (see 1.2) because it takes time for incoming employees to learn about and accept the dominant corporate values and assumptions (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2003:195).

Organisational culture is learned, so an effective network of cultural transmission is necessary to strengthen the organisation's underlying assumptions, values and beliefs. The cultural network exists through the organisational grapevine. It is also supported through military ceremonies and the South African Soldier, the official magazine of the South African National Defence Force. During military operations commanders should tap into the cultural network by sharing their own stories and creating an a cultural awareness that demonstrate shared meaning (Katz, 1997:34; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:514-515; Thompson and Strickland, 2003:431).

According to Gibson, et al. (1994:63-64) the organisation's culture is strengthened when they hire candidates (see 3.3) whose beliefs, values and assumptions are similar to those of the organisation. A good fit of personal and organisational values make it easier for employees to

adapt to the corporate culture. A good person-organisation fit also improves job satisfaction and organisational loyalty because new hires, with values compatible with the corporate culture, adjust more quickly to the organisation. Organisations can maintain strong cultures through the effective socialisation of new employees. Organisational socialisation is the process by which individuals learn the values, expected behaviours, and social knowledge necessary to assume their roles in the organisation. By communicating the organisation's dominant values (see 3.4), candidates and new employees are more likely to internalise these values quickly and deeply (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:198; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:515). This is true for the South African National Defence Force whose troops live in barracks and are constantly exposed (working conditions, training and operations) to the military culture. A change in leadership, or a change in the approach of leadership, may be needed to change and strengthen the organisation's culture. This requires transformational, transactional, instrumental or institutional leadership to communicate their vision and inspire employees to achieve beyond their expectations. Leaders should also maintain a motivated workforce who will remain with the organisation and instill the cultural values, norms and traditions in younger and new employees. Management should also encourage networking and use the grapevine to test the feelings and reaction of employees prior to implementing or introducing cultural or policy changes. Commanders subject subordinates to drilling, discipline, training and ceremonies to instill cultural values, norms and traditions in them.

Leaders should create an organisational culture that accommodates change and transformation, and adapts to an ever-changing corporate environment. This requires leaders with vision, commitment and determination. The next section therefore discusses leadership that transforms organisations and creates a new organisational culture.

## 5.4 LEADERSHIP

The above discussion focused on culture as the organisation's way of directing and influencing the beliefs and behaviour of the workforce to achieve organisational goals and objectives. It creates a sense of corporate belonging and directs employees to react and respond in ways that are consistent with the organisation's expectations. It creates a work environment where employees can increase their performance, which enhances productivity. Management should first embrace change before they can motivate the workforce to accept and adopt change. They should lead by example and encourage employees to follow them.

This section focuses the role of leadership in influencing and motivating a workforce to increase their performance, which enhances productivity. Leadership is the lifting of a person's vision to higher sights, the rising of a person's performance to a higher standard, the building of a person's personality beyond its normal limitations (David, 2001:135). Leadership is the ability to influence individuals and groups, inducing them to work willingly for the attainment of the business's predesigned goals (Cronje et al. 2001:149; Ricketts, 1997:3). Leadership is the process of influencing people and providing an environment for them to achieve team or organisational objectives (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:434; Reggio et al. 2002:75-76). According to the above definitions, leadership influences and motivates employees to achieve higher performance goals and objectives. It stretches employees to achieve above their normal capacity. Leaders also provide employees with resources to accomplish these objectives. They create a work environment that is conducive to the achievement of these goals. They use their competencies to influence the employees to use their abilities and skills and to improve their performance.



According to Drucker, (1992:100) leadership is a means to an end and not an end itself. Leadership to what end is thus the crucial question. The end should be the achievement of the organisation's mission and the leadership qualities that are needed. Drucker (1992:101-103) mentions five qualities of effective leadership. First, leadership is about performance that requires leaders to formulate the organisation mission and explore ways of achieving it. It requires leaders to set goals, priorities and set and maintain standards. Second, leadership should be seen as responsibility rather than as rank or privilege. Leaders should take responsibility for the action of their subordinates and not blame others when things go wrong. Third, leaders should build human capacity. They should increase people's competencies by training and developing them, and motivating them to internalise the organisation's vision and strive to achieve the mission. Fourth, to take calculated risk. Leaders should weigh up the short-term gains against long-term benefits. Fifth, to earn the respect and trust of subordinates leaders should lead by example and ensure that their integrity is maintained by "walking the talk". The above qualities are evident in the different leadership approaches that are discussed below. The first, second, fourth and fifth qualities can be observed in all four leadership approaches. The different leadership approaches apply these qualities differently. The third quality is dominant in transformational leadership.

There are certain leadership competencies that effective leaders possess. These include drive, leadership, motivation, integrity, self-confidence, intelligence, knowledge of the business and emotional intelligence. Drive (see 4.5) is the inner motivation that leaders possess to pursue their goals. Leaders have a high need for achievement (see 4.6), which inspires a constant need for learning. Leadership motivation is seen in the high need for power to influence others. Leaders try to gain power so that they can influence others to accomplish goals that benefit the team and organisation. Integrity is the leader's truthfulness and tendency to translate words into deeds. Leaders will only have followers when they are trusted. Self-confidence is the leader's

belief in his or her own leadership skills and the ability to achieve objectives. The intelligence of leaders is seen in their above-average cognitive ability to process enormous amount of information. It is their ability to analyse alternative scenarios and identify potential opportunities. Leaders should know the business environment in which they operate. This knowledge gives them an intuitive understanding which decisions to make and whose ideas are relevant to the organisation's survival and success. Effective leaders have a high level of emotional intelligence. This enables leaders to monitor their own and others' emotions, discriminate among them and use the information to guide their thoughts and actions (Cronje et al. 2001:149-151; Kotter, 1990:104-107; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:437).

Leaders should possess these competencies to deal with corporate challenges and motivate the workforce to accomplish organisational goals and objectives. They also inspire employees to achieve self-actualisation and increase their performance. Leaders should be self-motivated so that they can maintain a motivated workforce. Their integrity should inspire employees to believe and trust in them. They should sympathise and empathise with employees and support them physically, emotionally and psychologically. Through training and experience, leadership qualities are developed. These qualities increase leaders' competence and enable them to increase the organisation's performance. They should also use their competencies to train and develop employees (Thompson and Strickland, 2003:444-446; Vlamis, 1999:4; Wright, 1996:104-108).

According to Mao Tse Tung, (1955:378-380) leaders should maintaining unity within their ranks and amongst their subordinates. It allows them to have good relations with their colleagues and subordinates. It allows leaders to motivate their subordinates to use their potential to achieve common goals, particularly during war. It allows leaders to be concise when

organisational changes require different kinds of leadership behaviour in initiating, energising and implementing the change (Ricketts, 1997:39-40; Wright, 1996:37-40, 49-53).

Figure 5.2 illustrates leadership attitudes (transformational, transactional, instrumental and military), which represents a particular leadership focus, discussed in subsections below. It shows how leadership attitudes influence human resource management, motivation, organisational culture and employees performance, and enhances productivity.

#### **5.4.1 Transformational Leadership**

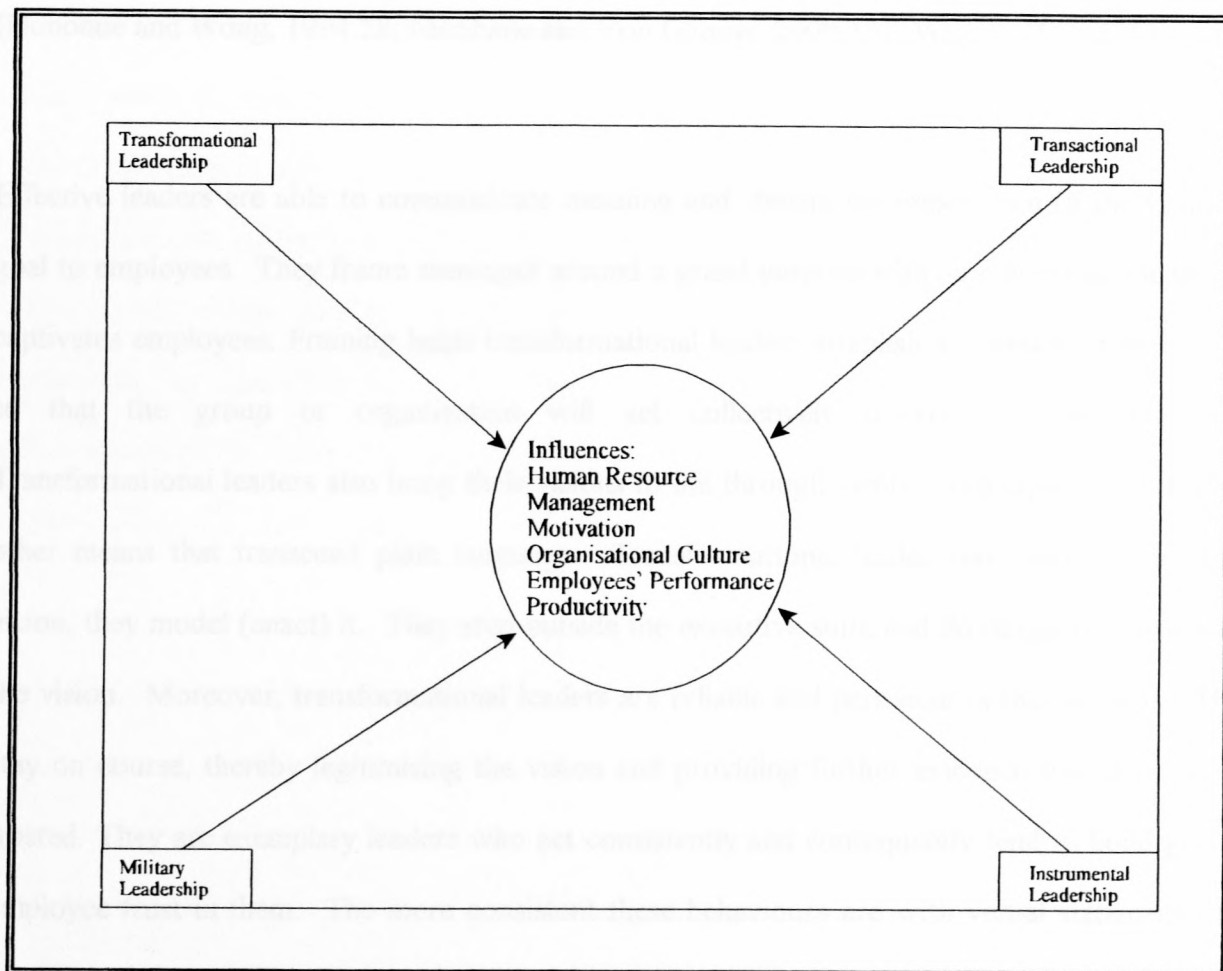
Transformational leaders motivate their employees to perform above both their own and the leader's expectations. They accomplish this by raising the importance of certain goals, by demonstrating the means to achieve them and by inducing employees to transcend their self-interest for the goals' achievement. This stimulates employees to achieve self-actualisation (see 4.6) (Reggio et al. 2002:106-107). Transformational leadership explains how leaders change teams or organisations by creating, communicating and modelling a vision for the organisation and inspiring employees to strive for that vision. It motivates subordinates to work for transcendent goals and for higher-level self-actualising needs, instead of working through a simple exchange relationship (Anderson, 1992:51). Self-actualisation becomes the primary motivator of subordinate behaviour as opposed to external rewards. Visioning, inspiration, intense and honest concerns for the welfare of subordinates constitute the cornerstone of transformational leadership (Donohue and Wong, 1994:29).

There are several elements that define the characteristics of transformational leaders. These elements include creating a strategic vision, communicating the vision, modelling the vision and



**FIGURE 5.2: LEADERSHIP ATTITUDES**

**SOURCE:** Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005



building commitment toward the vision. The first task of transformational leaders is to create a strategic vision of a realistic and attractive future that bonds employees together and focuses their energy toward a superordinate organisational goal. Visions represent the substance of transformational leadership. They are compelling future states that bond employees and motivate them to strive for those objectives. They are typically described in a way that distinguishes them from the current situation, yet makes the goal both appealing and achievable (Donohue and Wong, 1994:28; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:451; Wright, 1996:215).

Effective leaders are able to communicate meaning and elevate the importance of the visionary goal to employees. They frame messages around a grand purpose with an emotional appeal that captivates employees. Framing helps transformational leaders establish a common mental model so that the group or organisation will act collectively toward the desirable goal. Transformational leaders also bring their visions to life through symbols, metaphors, stories and other means that transcend plain language. Transformational leaders not only talk about a vision, they model (enact) it. They step outside the executive suite and do things that symbolise the vision. Moreover, transformational leaders are reliable and persistent in their actions. They stay on course, thereby legitimising the vision and providing further evidence that they can be trusted. They are exemplary leaders who act consistently and consequently tend to build greater employee trust in them. The more consistent these behaviours are with verbal statements, the more employees will believe and follow these statements (Conger and Kanungo, 1998:65; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:452; Reggio et al. 2002:108).

Transforming a vision into reality requires employees' commitment. Transformational leaders use words, symbols and stories that build a contagious enthusiasm that energises employees to adopt the vision as their own. Their persistence and consistency reflect an image of honesty,

trust and integrity. They build commitment by involving employees in the process of shaping the organisation's vision (Conger and Kanungo, 1998:66; Donohue and Wong, 1994:29; Reggio et al. 2002:109; Wright, 1996:216-217).

Transformational leadership influences employees to transcend self-interest and commit themselves to excellence. It focuses on the employee's emotional responses, self-esteem, trust and confidence in leaders and the employee's values and motivation to perform above and beyond what is expected of him or her. The vision and empowerment of leaders enable subordinates to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the leaders and the organisation. Transformational leaders can relate to their subordinates' need for identity, strengthen their self-concept and become part of the subordinates' identity. They are able to transform regular motivation to commitment and convert subordinates' commitment into exceptional achievements (Donohue and Wong, 1994:24; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:450; Reggio et al. 2002:106).

It could be deduced that transformational leaders constantly motivates employees to increase their performance by stretching them to achieve above their expectations. They show a keen interest in the well-being of employees and creates conditions that allows employees to achieve organisational and individual goals. By satisfying employees needs transformational leaders are able to inspire employees to use their competencies and skills to increase their performance and productivity.

#### **5.4.2 Transactional Leadership**

According to McShane and Von Glinow, (2000:450) transactional leadership helps



organisations achieve their current objectives more effectively by linking job performance to valued rewards and ensuring that employees have the resources needed to get the job done. It takes on the form of an exchange process owing to the fact that subordinates' needs are met when they meet the leader's expectations. Therefore, subordinates strive to achieve these expectations because of their fear of failure or desire for rewards (Donohue and Wong, 1994:28). Transactional leadership affects the employee's motivation by exchanging rewards and by establishing an atmosphere in which there is the perception of closer links between efforts and desired outcomes. It focuses on the effects the leader's behaviour has on the followers, for example, recognition, motivation and performance (Anderson, 1992:51).

Transactional and transformational leadership can be conceptualised as separate dimensions, or as two ends of a spectrum. The former means that leaders can either be one or the other. The latter means that leaders can be both. Transformational leadership challenges the old order and breaks the continuity of the traditional way of doing things; it is a risky adventure that fosters change. It motivates and inspires employees by providing meaning and challenges to solve complex problems. Employees are encouraged to use their innovative and creative skills to produce better goods and services. This makes employees optimistic and enthusiastic about future work activities. Transactional leadership improves organisational efficiency, whereas transformational leadership steers organisations onto a better course of action (Conger and Kanungo, 1998:13-15; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:451; Reggio et al. 2002:108; Steers et al. 1996:181-182).

Transactional leadership is 'managing' – helping organisations achieve their current objectives more effectively. For example, commanders will ensure that troops are in possession of all the necessary equipment before they go on a military mission. In contrast, transformational

leadership is 'leading' – changing the organisation's strategies and culture so that they have a better fit with the external environment. Transformational leaders are agents of change who energise and direct employees to a new set of corporate values and behaviours. Organisations need both transactional and transformational leaders to transform its culture and motivate the workforce to increase their performance (Conger and Kanungo, 1998:13-15; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:451; Reggio et al. 2002:108; Steers et al. 1996:181-182).

Transactional and transformational leadership are effective in transforming employees' behaviour and creating an organisational culture that accommodates a diverse workforce. Both leaderships instill in employees a desire to improve their performance and to increase productivity. They encourage employees to internalise the leaders' vision and mission and use competencies, abilities to achieve organisational and individual goals and objectives. They also motivate employees to use their personality to build sound employee relationships.

From the above discussion the following distinctions have emerged:

<b>Transactional leadership</b>	<b>Transformational leadership</b>
► Performance is based on rewards	► Performance is based on self-actualisation
► No reward, no increased productivity	► Rewards do not determine increased productivity
► Rewards focus on extrinsic motivation	► Rewards focus on intrinsic motivation
► Employees strive for recognition	► Employees achieve beyond expectation

► Motivation of employees depends on cognitive evaluation and expectancy theories importance	► Motivation of employees do not depend on specific motivational theories
	► Employees' well-being is of primary
	► Leaders are committed and dedicated to the course
	► A mutual trust relationship exists between leaders and subordinates

Figure 5.3 illustrates the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership and shows why transformational leadership represents an enhanced understanding of leadership when compared with transactional leadership. Transformational leadership consists of four behavioural components: charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Chemers, 1997:86; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:450; Popper et al. 1992:3).

Charisma is viewed as the process through which leaders arouse strong emotions in employees. Employees emulate the leaders and use the opportunities to do their utmost. Inspiration is the leader's ability to articulate an appealing vision, using symbols to focus employees' effort and modelling appropriate behaviour. Intellectual stimulation is the behaviour that encourages employees to use their creative skills to solve work problems. Individualised consideration is the special support that leaders provide to employees by assigning them to special projects that will promote their self-confidence (Chemers, 1997:86; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:450; Popper et al. 1992:3).



FIGURE 5.3: TRANSACTIONAL AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

SOURCE: POPPER et al. (1992:3)

Attributes	Transactional	Transformational
Leader's source of power	Rank, Position	Character, Competence
Follower reaction	Compliance	Commitment
Time frame	Short-term	Long-term
Rewards	Pay, Promotion, etc	Pride, Self-esteem, etc
Supervision	Important	Less important
Counselling focuses	Evaluation	Development
Where change occur	Follower behaviour	Follower attitude, values
Where leadership is found	A leader's behaviour	Followers' heart

When a leader attempts to influence employees, four possible outcomes may occur: resistance, compliance, identification and internalisation. Resistance is the refusal or reluctance of a subordinate to comply with a leader's request. Compliance is the acceptance of the leader's influence and a corresponding change in behaviour, but not necessarily a change in attitude. For example, an employee can execute the leader's orders to receive social and material rewards, or to avoid social and material punishment. Identification is the acceptance of influence because the source is an attractive source, worthy of emulation. The subordinates wish to be like the leader. Internalisation is the acceptance of influence and consequent attitude change due to the intrinsically rewarding nature of the influence attempt (Avolio et al. 1991:5; Chemers, 1997:87; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:452; Popper et al. 1992:4).

It could be deduced that transactional leaders manage employees to achieve the organisation's current goals and objectives. Employees are rewarded to increase their performance to achieve

production targets. Employees increase their performance as long as they receive rewards. No rewards no performance.

#### **5.4.3 Instrumental Leadership**

The above discussion focused on transformational and transactional leadership. It was made clear that transactional leadership can promote effectiveness, while transformational leadership provides for an enhanced understanding whereby beneficial and visionary change can be effected. This subsection focuses on instrumental leadership, which focuses on the management of teams, structures and managerial processes to create individual instrumentalities. It builds competent teams, clarifies the expected behaviour and institute measurements to determine performance. The approach focuses on the behaviour of senior teams to make sure that their behaviour is consistent with what is needed for change to take place. It is supported by the Expectancy Theory of motivation, which states that employees perform the behaviour that they perceive to be instrumental to acquiring valued outcomes. It is concerned with managing environments to create conditions that motivate the desired behaviour (Katz, 1997:263-265; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:643).

Instrumental leadership involves three elements of behaviour, namely structuring, controlling and rewarding. Structuring is the time leaders invest in building teams that have the required competence to execute and implement the re-orientation, and in creating structures that make it clear what types of behaviour are required throughout the organisation. This involves setting goals, establishing standards and defining roles and responsibilities. Re-orientations require detailed planning about what employees will need to do and how they will be required to act during different phases of the change. Controlling involves the creation of systems and

processes to measure, monitor and assess both behaviour and results, and to administer corrective action. Rewarding includes the administration of both rewards and punishments contingent upon the degree to which behaviour is consistent with the requirements of the change (Katz, 1997:263-265; Beardwell and Holden, 2001:643).

Instrumental leadership focuses on the challenge of shaping consistent behaviours in support of the re-orientation. The transformational leaders excite employees, inspire their aspirations and direct their energy. However, in practice, this is not enough to sustain patterns of desired behaviour. Employees may be committed to the vision, but over time other forces may influence their behaviour, particularly when they are not in direct personal contact with the leader. Instrumental leadership is needed to ensure compliance over time consistent with the commitment generated by transformational leadership. For example, Edgar, the commander not only empowers his subordinates, but also institutes processes and systems that monitors and gives feedback to subordinates on their performance and achievement (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:645).

For effective organisational change to take place, both transformational and instrumental leadership are needed. Transformational leadership is needed to generate energy, create commitment and direct employees towards new objectives and values. Instrumental leadership is required to ensure that employees act in a manner that is consistent with their new goals. Transformational leadership can influence many employees, but is limited by the frequency and intensity of contact with the individual leader. Instrumental leadership is limited by the degree to which the individual leader can structure, observe, measure and reward behaviour. Leadership on all levels, from the chief executive officer to the lowest supervisor, has a bearing on managerial functions. Thus, leaders cannot express fear, uncertainty or resistance to change



and expect their subordinates to remain motivated and enthusiastic. Leaders cannot be part of a culture of resistance to change and expect of their subordinates not to become part of that culture. Leaders cannot pay lip service to increased performance and expect their followers to perform excellently. Leaders should be enthusiastic, optimistic and lead by example; they should set the pace for their subordinates to follow. Leadership's view of reality, both from a social and an economic point of view, is valuable for the success of the organisation (Joynt and Warner, 1996:166; van der Merwe, 1992:5).

Leaders' decisions determine the level of productivity and profit of the organisation, and influence the work life of employees. For example, a promotion means increased remuneration and social status. However, a short work week means lower income, which affects employees' remuneration and standard of living. Therefore, leaders should institute sound, fair and just human resource policies, procedures and practices. Leaders should treat all employees equally. They should create an organisational culture and work environment where employees can achieve self-actualisation and increase their performance, which enhances productivity (Joynt and Warner, 1996:167; van der Merwe, 1992:6).

Instrumental leaders create conditions that motivates employees to increase their performance. They institute systems, structures and procedures that influence employees' behaviour to achieve the desired outcomes. Instrumental leaders invest resources in building competent teams who use their competencies and skills to achieve organisational goals. They ensure compliance over time that is consistent with the commitment that employees pledged at the beginning of the undertaking (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:645).

Leaders should be mindful of the consequences of their actions. Their deeds can influence the

success or failure of the organisation, because their behaviour may be copied by their subordinates. Their actions speak louder than their words and may have far-reaching implications for the organisation. What they say is accepted as fact and may influence employees' lives and performance. Military leadership represents a particular leadership focus that will to be explored here.

#### **5. 4.4 Military Leadership**

The previous sections discussed leadership as the ability to influence and motivate employees to performance beyond their normal capability. Leadership challenges employees to achieve higher performance and provides them with the necessary resources to accomplish it. It focused on three leadership attitudes (transformational, transactional and instrumental) that could be used for effective organisational change and re-orientation.

This section explores military leadership, whereby the first deliberate contextualisation of the theoretical analysis towards a military setting is made in preparation for the case study to be explored in the next chapter. Military leaders have played a direct role in shaping the South African society. The first three prime ministers of the South African Union Generals Botha, Smuts and Hertzog were military leaders who influenced the political sphere of South Africa. More recently, the military leaders General Magnus Malan, General Jannie Geldenhuys, and General George Meiring, provided leadership that decisively affected the success of their military campaigns and greatly influenced the management and leadership of the officer cadre of the South African National Defence Force. These influences were apparent in the following decisive operations of the South African Defence Force in Angola during the 1980s: Sceptic (1980), Protea (1981), Daisy (1981), Super (1982), Askari (1983), Modular (1987), Hooper

(1987 to 1988) and Packer (1988). Similarly, decisive military intervention is required during transformation in order to maintain a stable national environment where political and economic transactions can take place (De la Ray, 1990:38-40; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:4.3-4.4).

The military leader's approach is essentially authoritarian and not persuasive, although they may on occasion find the persuasive approach feasible. Military leadership means that the officers execute the assigned mission in such a way that by their actions and methods they command obedience, respect and the loyalty of their subordinates. It is also apparent that military leadership should be considered as a "means to an end", a means of carrying out the mission. The requirements of a military organisation make it imperative that above all other things the "mission be accomplished". This is evident in operational situations where commanding is applied and orders are executed implicitly. Superiors may either use rational persuasion, or technical expertise and insight to persuade their subordinates to accept their authority. If not, superiors may use their hierarchical position and order subordinates to execute their instructions. Therefore, military leadership therefore induces compliance, subordinate commitment and exerts influence on others. Military leaders' authority is legitimised by virtue of their hierarchical appointment (Chuter, 2000:88-90; Military Leadership, 1995:1:18; Yukl, 1994:49-50).

Different leadership styles (authoritarian, democratic, participative, supportive, directive) are experienced in the South African National Defence Force. The circumstances in which officers find themselves (operational situations, negotiations, mediation, training conditions and the work situation) determine the styles of leadership that can be applied. Employees' skills, competencies, abilities, experiences and personalities may influence the style of leadership that



can be used in a situation. The style of leadership also influences employees' attitude, motivation and performance as discussed in 4.4, and 4.5. Therefore, leaders should use different leadership styles to manage different situations (de Vries, 1998; Links, 2001; Gaither, 1992:591-592; Ricketts, 1997:21-24).

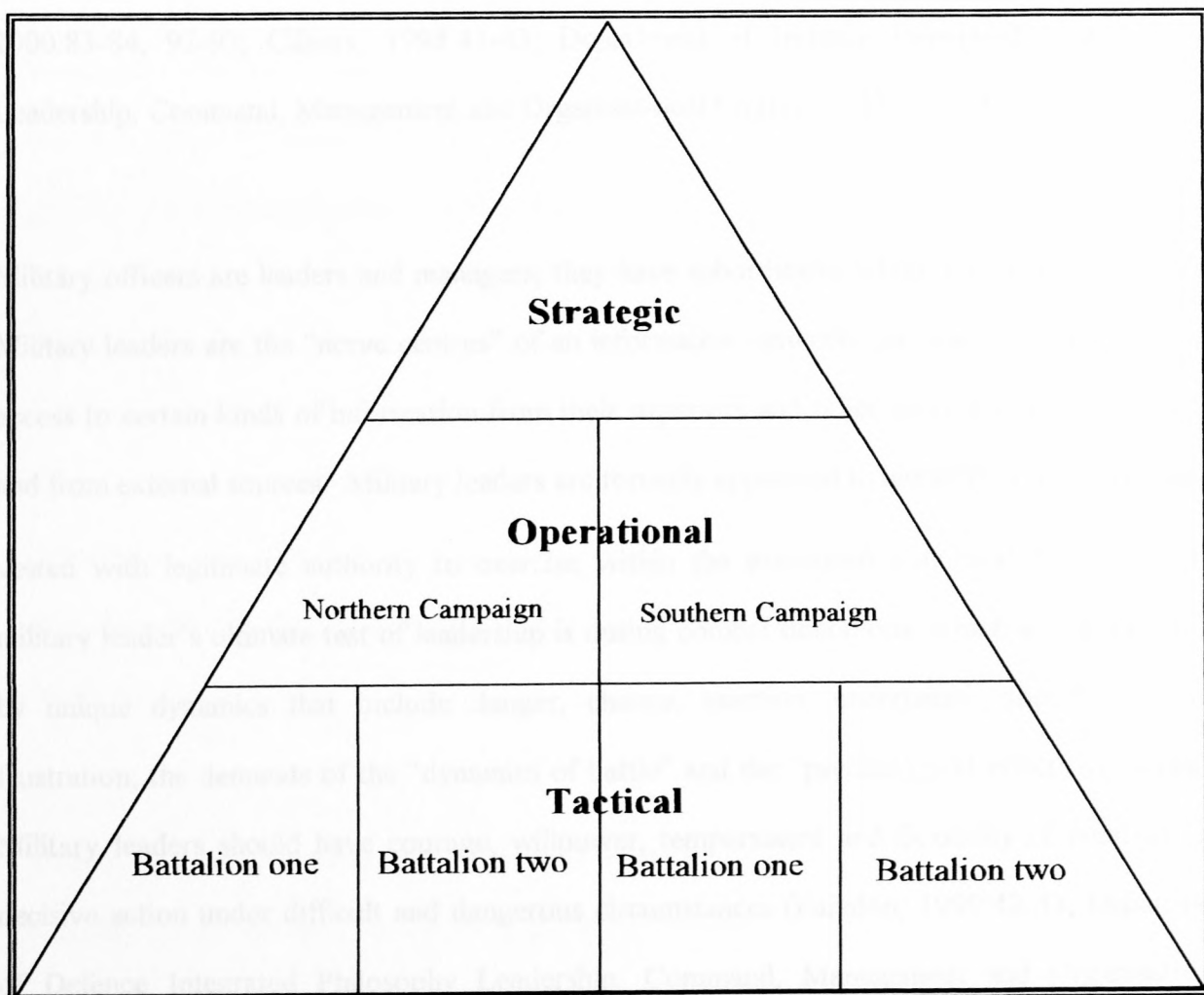
Figure 5.4 indicates the three domains of operational military leadership, namely the strategic, the operational and the tactical. These leadership levels differ in their nature and operational environment, but have a close relationship to achieve military success (Chuter, 2000:83-84, 92-93; Cilliers, 1998:41-43; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:4.5-4.6):

- Strategic leadership. The strategic leader occupies the highest position of leadership. Primary features of leadership at this level are primarily indirect. The external environment has a substantial influence on decision-making and the leader's focus is decidedly future oriented.
- Operational leadership. The operational level lies between the strategy and tactical in the continuum of operational military leadership. On this level, commanders co-ordinate tactical battles and engagements as part of major operations and campaigns to create the military condition that ultimately achieves strategic goals. Leaders at this level experience increasing complexity and diversity of tasks and are subject to competing demands from the external environment and the internal organisation.
- Tactical leadership. This is the level where physical engagements in battle take place. The leaders exert influence through personal interaction with subordinates. The leader's focus is on the present, or the immediate future, to achieve military goals and objectives.

The operational commander endeavours to achieve strategic military goals and is in charge of a

FIGURE 5.4: DOMAIN OF MILITARY LEADERSHIP

SOURCE: DEPARTMENT OF DEFENCE INTEGRATED PHILOSOPHY ON LEADERSHIP, COMMAND, MANAGEMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE (1997:4.5)



military campaign or operation. He or she is usually a brigadier-general with a number of operational and tactical commanders under his or her command. The tactical commander directly influences the outcome of a particular military goal. Together with other tactical commanders, he or she strives to realise the accomplishment of the strategic goals. The commander is usually a lieutenant-colonel and is in charge of the smallest unit of a military campaign. In wartime, a defence force needs professional leadership at all levels because there is no technique how to manage soldiers effectively in battle. They should be led (Chuter, 2000:83-84, 92-93; Cilliers, 1998:41-43; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:4.5- 4.6).

Military officers are leaders and managers; they have subordinates whom they manage and lead. Military leaders are the “nerve centres” of an informative network, because they have exclusive access to certain kinds of information from their superiors and other sources in the organisation and from external sources. Military leaders are formally appointed to hierarchical positions, and vested with legitimate authority to exercise within the prescribed command directive. The military leader’s ultimate test of leadership is during combat operations, which are characterised by unique dynamics that include danger, chance, exertion, uncertainty, apprehension and frustration; the demands of the “dynamics of battle” and the “psychological effects of combat”. Military leaders should have courage, willpower, temperament and flexibility of mind to take decisive action under difficult and dangerous circumstances (Fursdon, 1999:42-43; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:4.3-4.4; Military Leadership, 1995:3.108, 5.174; De Vries, 1998).

According to an empirical study conducted by the Department of Defence (Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational



Culture, 1997:3.1), to determine what the employees expect from leaders. Employees expected leaders to provide vision and direction for the organisation and to motivate them to reach higher goals. They wanted leaders to communicate openly, honestly and regularly with them, so that they can build a trust relationship and delegate authority to empower them to do their work. Employees wanted leaders to create a work environment that is conducive to employees' orientation, caring, supportive and providing opportunities for individual growth.

Command is the legal authority vested in an individual for the direction, co-ordination and control of military forces. Command is a purely military function exercised by an individual appointed by a military warrant, which empowers him or her to apply the Military Disciplinary Code in executing his or her authority. It has a legal and constitutional status. It includes the process by which a commander makes decisions and impresses his or her will on, and transmits his or her intentions to, their subordinates. Therefore, command encompasses the authority, responsibility, accountability, control and duty to act, to deploy forces to fulfil their mission (Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:3.2; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:3.2-3.3).

Commanders exercise command differently in peacetime than in war. War requires advanced technology, high mobility, agility and rapid decision-making. How command is exercised is the key to future success. The decentralisation of command to lower commanders should be coupled with the achievement of specific goals and objectives. Furthermore, commanders should be given the necessary flexibility, autonomy and resources to take the necessary action to ensure that stated goals and objectives are accomplished. This will enable commanders at all hierarchical levels to take effective, timely and responsible decisions. It will reduce the

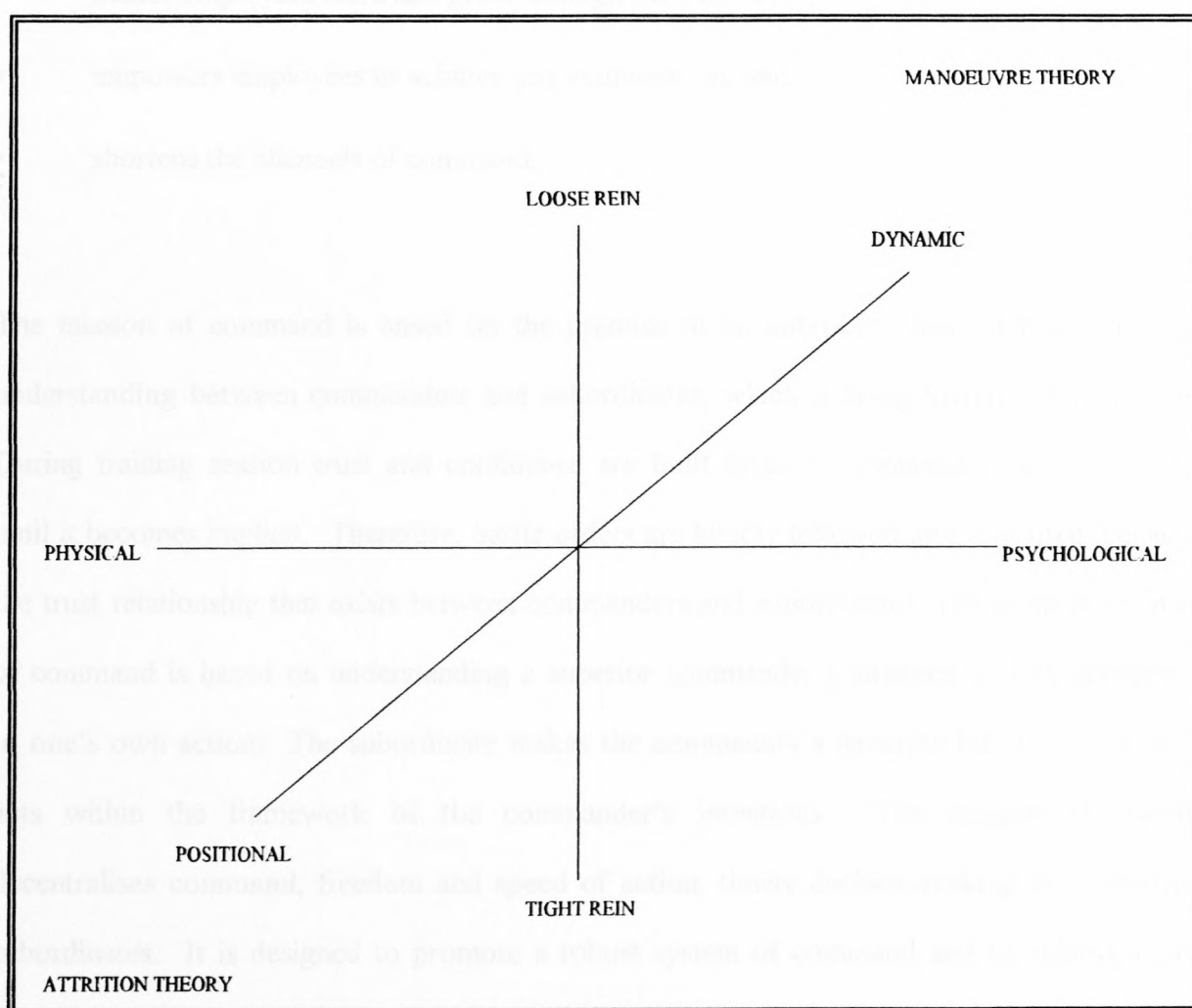
cumbersome bureaucratic administrative systems, procedures and processes (Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:3.2; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:3.3-3.4).

The parameter of command is inculcated in the concept of command, as demonstrated in the Attrition and Manoeuvre Theories. The Attrition Theory of warfare (Figure 5.5) focuses on the destruction of the enemy's forces, its personnel and equipment over time through the application of superior firepower and superior numbers. This requires detailed centralised planning, the management of resources and active centralised control. This theory compares with the concept of command in peacetime. In this model, control is centralised at the highest level and the decentralisation of authority and freedom of action are constrained by means of rigid rules and regulation (Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:2A.1, 3.5; De Vries, 1998).

The Manoeuvre Theory (Figure 5.5), by contrast, regards fighting as only one way of applying military force to achieve political-military goals. The mission and objectives are logically related to the strategic aim, and are concerned with all forces and resources. It allows for timely decision-making, initiative and integrated application of mobile and unconventional warfare concepts. It allows access to information that formerly was known only to commanders. When the employees know how to interpret the information, they know the commander's intent and can make decisions that can lead to greater success in battle. Subordinates respond quickly, intelligently and assume responsibility for their decisions. The Manoeuvre Theory of command should also be applied in peacetime. This will enable the South African National Defence Force to achieve increased productivity (see 2.4) and performance (see 4.6), because it (Cilliers, 1998:37-38; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy Leadership, Command, Management

FIGURE 5.5: ATTRITION THEORY VERSUS MANOEUVRE THEORY

SOURCE: DEPARTMENT OF DEFENCE INTEGRATED PHILOSOPHY  
LEADERSHIP, COMMAND, MANAGEMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL  
CULTURE (1997:2A.1)





and Organisational Culture, 1997:2A.3.5, 3.13; De Vries, 1998):

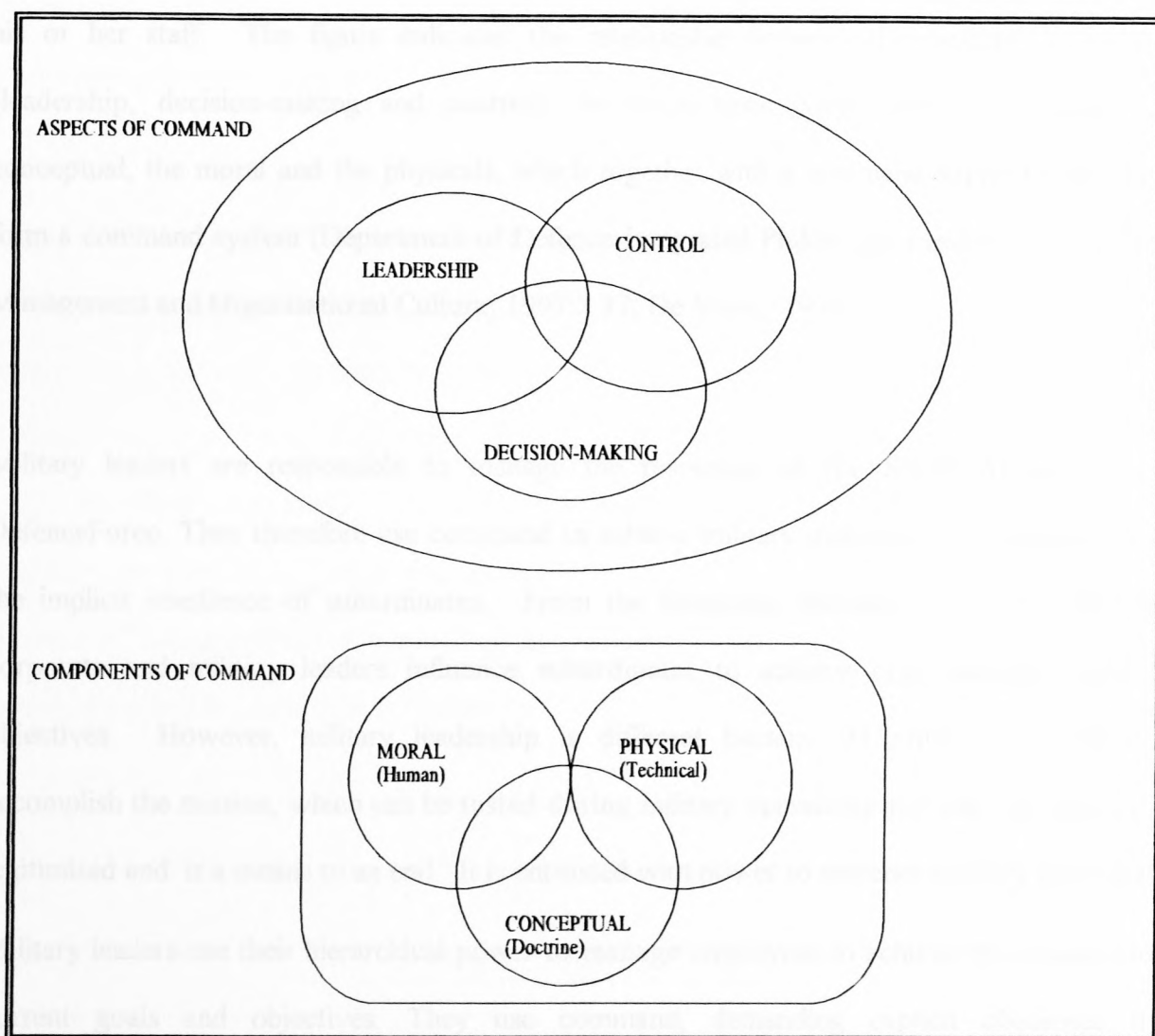
- encourages open communication between supervisors and subordinates;
- builds a trust relationship between supervisors and subordinates;
- allows employees to use their abilities, competencies and skills;
- makes employees responsible for their actions;
- makes employees learn and grow through their mistakes;
- empowers employees to achieve self-actualisation; and
- shortens the channels of command.

The mission of command is based on the premise of an unbroken chain of trust and mutual understanding between commanders and subordinates, which is being fostered during training. During training session trust and confidence are built between commanders and subordinates until it becomes implicit. Therefore, battle orders are blindly followed and executed, because of the trust relationship that exists between commanders and subordinates. The premise of mission of command is based on understanding a superior commander's intention and by applying this to one's own actions. The subordinate makes the commander's intention his or her intent, and acts within the framework of the commander's intentions. The mission of command decentralises command, freedom and speed of action, timely decision-making and initiative to subordinates. It is designed to promote a robust system of command and to achieve unity of effort at all levels (Cilliers, 1998:39-41; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:2A.3.12-3.13; De Vries, 1998).

In Figure 5.6, the aspects of command are shown as overlapping to indicate their interaction:

FIGURE 5.6: COMMAND SYSTEM

SOURCE: DEPARTMENT OF DEFENCE INTEGRATED PHILOSOPHY

LEADERSHIP, COMMAND, MANAGEMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL  
CULTURE (1997:3A.2)

decision-making takes place in both leadership and control; leadership relies on human factors and control of material ones. The conceptual components of command require a sound philosophy of command. The moral and human components focus on the ability to get soldiers to fight, hence the requirement for leadership and other qualities of command. The three components of command are supported by a command support organisation. This institution processes information, provides advice and caters for the physical needs of the commander and his or her staff. The figure indicates the relationship between the aspects of command (leadership, decision-making and control), the three basic components of command (the conceptual, the moral and the physical), which together with a command support organisation form a command system (Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:3.17; De Vries, 1998).

Military leaders are responsible to manage the resources of the South African National Defence Force. They therefore use command to achieve military missions, goals, objectives and the implicit obedience of subordinates. From the foregoing discussion it is clear that both corporate and military leaders influence subordinates to achieve organisational goals and objectives. However, military leadership is different because its primary purpose is to accomplish the mission, which can be tested during military operations and war. Its authority is legitimised and is a means to an end. It is entrusted with power to sentence military personnel.

Military leaders use their hierarchical power to manage employees to achieve the organisation's current goals and objectives. They use command, demanding explicit obedience from employees, to achieve a mission.

The study thus far focused on the theoretical analysis of the independent variables dealt with in



Chapters 3, 4 and 5 respectively. The study now focuses on the extent to which the independent variables influence productivity. Figure 5.7 illustrates the interdependence and interaction between the human resource variables and their influence on productivity. It shows that human resource management, motivation and productivity are encapsulated in organisational culture. It also shows how these variables influence productivity. The figure shows that productivity is an integral part of organisational culture, because it is the reason for the organisation's existence. It means that organisational culture determines: (1) the nature of productivity in the organisation; (2) the attitude of employees towards productivity; (3) the commitment of employees to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity.

Figure 5.7 shows that human resource management focuses on effectively managing people. It involves recruiting, selecting, training, developing and appointing the most competent employees to the most appropriate positions. By using the full potential of each employee and optimally utilising them in positions where they can best serve the organisation. It allows them to increase their performance. To motivate subordinates, supervisors have to use intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to influence and change the behaviour of subordinates. The means of motivation will determine subordinates' commitment to use their potential to achieve self-actualisation and increase their performance.

Table 5.1 is a compilation of research arguments and findings discussed in Chapters 3, 4 and 5.

The Table shows to what extent the independent human resource variables influence productivity.

**FIGURE 5.7: THE INDEPENDENT HUMAN RESOURCE VARIABLES INFLUENCE PRODUCTIVITY**

**SOURCE:** Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005

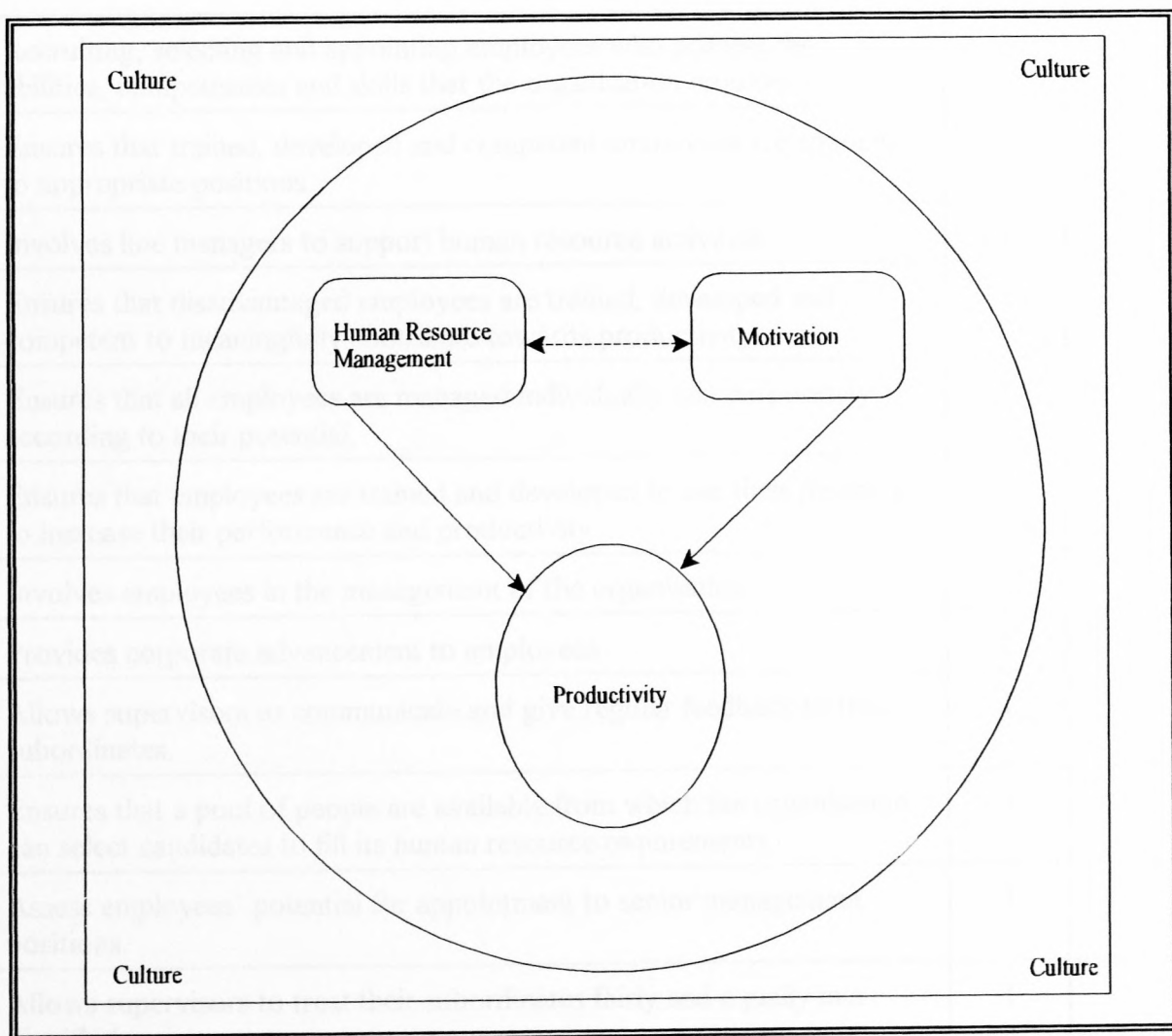


TABLE 5.1: FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TOWARDS INCREASED  
PERFORMANCE AND PRODUCTIVITY

FACTORS THAT INCREASE PERFORMANCE AND PRODUCTIVITY		
	Score	Sub total percent age
<b>Human Resource Management:</b>		
Recruiting, selecting and appointing employees who possess the abilities, competencies and skills that the organisation requires.	1	
Ensures that trained, developed and competent employees are appointed to appropriate positions.	1	
Involves line managers to support human resource activities.	1	
Ensures that disadvantaged employees are trained, developed and competent to meaningfully contribute towards productivity.	1	
Ensures that all employees are managed individually and corporately according to their potential.	1	
Ensures that employees are trained and developed to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity.	1	
Involves employees in the management of the organisation.	1	
Provides corporate advancement to employees.	1	
Allows supervisors to communicate and give regular feedback to their subordinates.	1	
Ensures that a pool of people are available from which the organisation can select candidates to fill its human resource requirements.	1	
Assess employees' potential for appointment to senior management positions.	1	
Allows supervisors to treat their subordinates fairly and equally in a dignified way.	1	
Allows management not only to affirm disadvantaged employees but also to provide support systems that ensure they succeed.	1	
Allows employees exposure to other staff and line functions within their discipline.	1	
<b>Subtotal</b>	<b>14</b>	



<b>Motivation:</b>		
Stimulates employees to use their effort and potential to increase their performance and productivity.	1	
Motivates employees to use the organisation's resources to develop their full potential to achieve self-actualisation.	1	
Rewards employees intrinsically and extrinsically according to their performance.	1	
Encourages disadvantaged employees to use their potential to achieve self-actualisation and increase their performance and productivity.	1	
Provides for the basic needs of employees.	1	
Rewards satisfy employees' needs which stimulates them to exert their effort to increase their performance.	1	
Allows supervisors to understand employees' needs.	1	
Allows employees to set more challenging goals.	1	
Allows employees to achieve the organisation's goals.	1	
Allows for effective communications and feedback between supervisors and subordinates.	1	
<b>Subtotal</b>	<b>10</b>	
<b>Organisational Culture:</b>		
Creates an environment in which disadvantaged employees can be trained, developed and motivated.	1	
Creates an environment in which disadvantaged employees can use their potential to increase their performance and productivity.	1	
Creates an environment that establishes practices that positively influence employees' behaviour.	1	
Creates a culture that allows employees to improve their standard of living and quality of life.	1	
Creates an environment in which disadvantaged employees can use their competencies and skills to achieve self-actualisation and corporate advancement.	1	
Demonstrates the organisation's way of life, of how it conducts business, reacts to growth, responds to society and treats its employees.	1	

Creates an environment in which diverse employees can use their potential to achieve self-actualisation and enjoy corporate advancement.	1	
Creates an environment in which diverse employees can be trained, developed and motivated.	1	
Creates an environment in which honest and fair performance appraisal takes place.	1	
Creates an environment in which employees are remunerated and rewarded according to their performance.	1	
Creates an environment in which participative management takes place.	1	
Creates an environment in which career development takes place.	1	
Creates an environment in which cultural and religious differences are tolerated and respected.	1	
Creates an environment in which transformation and reorganisation can take place.	1	
Creates an environment in which managerial functions and organisational effectiveness can take place.	1	
Creates an environment in which effective human resource management, motivation, leadership and increased productivity can take place.	1	
Allows management to appoint the most competent employees to the most appropriate positions.	1	
Allows managers to create systems, policies and practices that inculcate in employees the desired behaviour that enables them to increase their performance and productivity.	1	
Allows management to preserve the organisation's image and reputation as being the best in the industry.	1	
<b>Subtotal</b>	<b>22</b>	

## 5.5 CONCLUSION

Organisational culture is the way in which the organisation conducts business and increases employees' performance. It is the organisation's way to influence and direct the beliefs and

behaviour of its workforce to achieve organisational goals and objectives. It is determined by top executives and senior management. To ensure the continued practise of organisational culture, top executives fill senior management positions by internal appointment. It is perpetuated in the traditions of the different departments and divisions.

Organisational culture affects the functioning and operation of the organisation, which in turn affect the work life of employees. It impacts on the behaviour of the workforce and influences their performance, which enhances productivity. It is crucial in developing and maintaining levels of intensity and commitment among employees. Organisational culture enables management to introduce, inculcate and reinforce new values, beliefs, traditions and culture in employees. It is claimed that organisational culture is the foundation upon which the other organisational pillars can be built.

Effective leaders ensure greater organisational effectiveness, which depends on the leadership styles that are applied in different situations, particularly when the survival and success of the organisation are at stake. Transformational, transactional and instrumental leadership are needed to manage organisations operating in the dynamic corporate environment of the twenty-first century. Corporate and military leaders execute similar functions, but have different degrees of power to manage their respective organisations. Corporate leaders are more concerned with profits, while military leaders are more concerned with achieving the mission. Military leaders also have legitimate power to command military forces and to sentence military personnel who contravene the Military Disciplinary Code. Leaders constantly strives to influence employees to use their competencies and skills to increase their performance and productivity.

The dissertation followed an approach, whereby the desired outcome, namely productivity, was



first defined (in Chapter 2); secondly, the human resource variables (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture, discussed in Chapters 3, 4 and 5 respectively) were explored as means of achieving higher productivity as outcome; and next, the focus shifted to the particular example as the South African National Defence Force and its characteristics (see Figure 1.3) in relation to the human resource variables.

The next chapter discusses the operationalisation of the South African National Defence Force and focuses on social imbalances and physical variables and their effect on productivity.

## CHAPTER 6

### **SOCIAL IMBALANCES AND PRODUCTIVITY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The first part of the dissertation focused on the theoretical analyses of the dependent variable, productivity (discussed in Chapter 2) and the three independent variables, human resource management, motivation and organisational culture (discussed in Chapters 3, 4 and 5 respectively). This part (Chapters 6 and 7) focuses on the operationalisation of the meaning of productivity in the South African National Defence Force.

Chapter 2 dealt with the dependent variable, productivity. It discussed the meaning of productivity and alluded to the physical and human resource variables that influence and increase it. It emphasised the necessity of human resource variables as vital resources, which influence productivity, because they add value to physical resources by designing and reconstructing them to produce consumable goods and services. Chapter 2 also presented a productivity index, which serves as a human resource-orientated measurement to determine the level of productivity of an organisation.

Chapter 3 explored how the first independent human resource variable, human resource management, can influence productivity. Human resources are the major resource, which influences productivity, because it has the ability to control and manage physical resources. Managers are increasingly taking responsibility for recruitment, selection, development and utilisation of their employees, because they recognise that the labour market from which they recruit their employees is diverse. Human resource

management matches employees' abilities, competencies and skills with the job requirements to ascertain that the best employees are appointed in the most appropriate positions. This enables management to capitalise on employees' competencies and skills, which they use to increase their performance and enhance productivity. Human resource management is supported by three integrated factors that ensure its effectiveness. Human resource planning ensures that the organisation has a large pool of employees from which to select candidates to fill the immediate and future human resource requirements. Human resource development ensures that employees are trained and developed to execute their job more effectively and to fill senior positions. Managing diversity ensures that employees' abilities, competencies and skills are optimally utilised to achieve increased performance, productivity and organisational effectiveness.

Chapter 4 dealt with the second independent human resource variable, motivation, which is used to motivate the workforce to achieve self-actualisation, individual and organisational goals and objectives. Motivation encourages employees to use their competencies and skills to increase their performance and productivity.

Chapter 5 explored the last independent human resource variable, organisational culture, which serves as the foundation for establishing a work environment in which increased productivity can be accomplished. The work environment enables management to motivate employees to increase their performance and productivity. The chapter also discussed the role of leaders to train, develop, motivate and optimally utilise the workforce to achieve organisational goals and objectives.

This chapter focuses on the first part of the operationalisation of the dissertation that is illustrated in



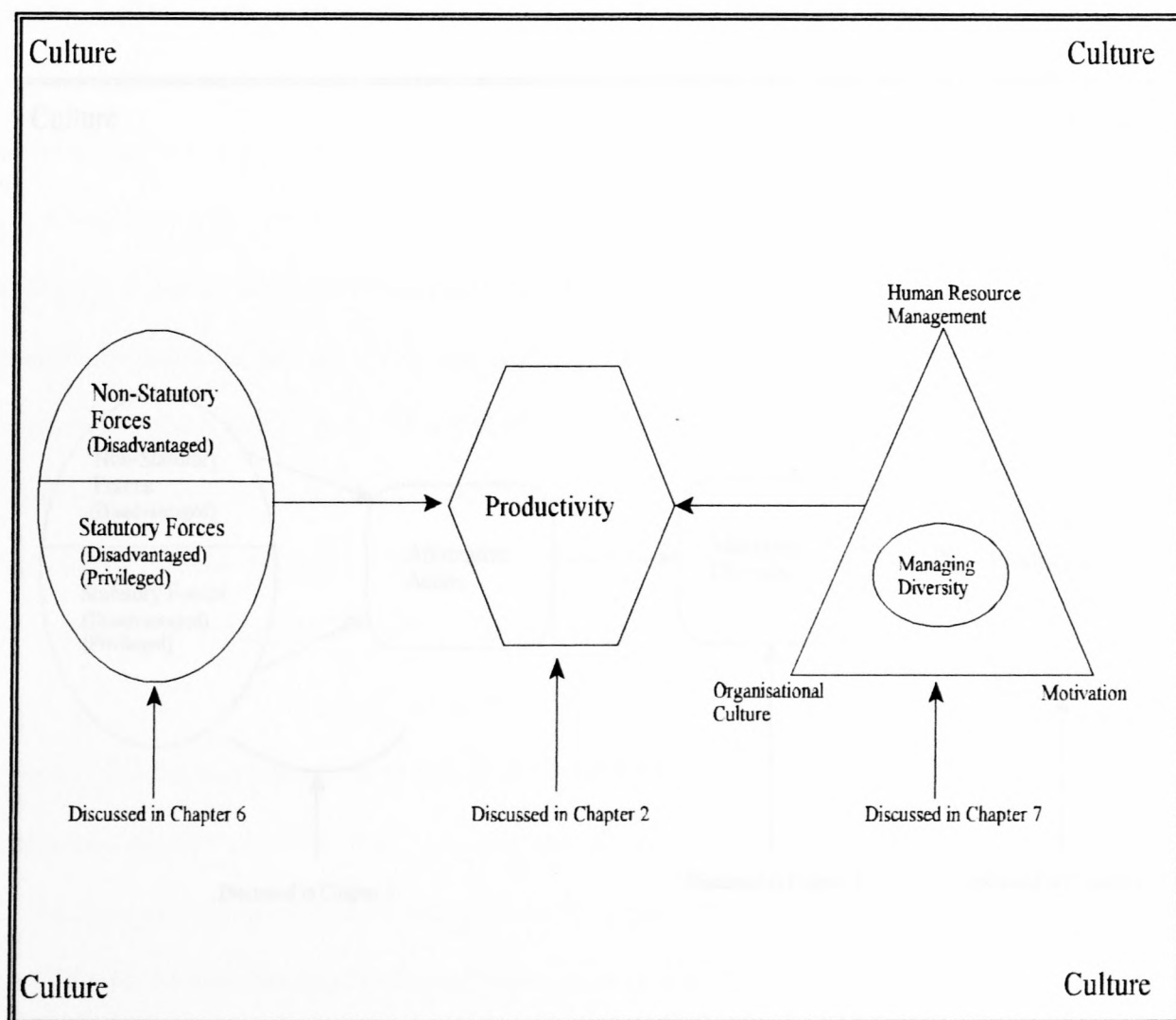
Figure 6.1. It shows that the workforce is divided into two broad categories, Statutory Forces and Non-Statutory Forces, which originated as a result of past social imbalances of the apartheid era. Apartheid legislation discriminated and disadvantaged all blacks and women irrespective of whether they were Statutory Forces or Non-Statutory Forces. The chapter discusses the effects that social imbalances have on the performance of disadvantaged people, organisational effectiveness and productivity. It also focuses on affirmative action as a tool to address past social imbalances. The last part of this chapter explores the South African National Defence Force's approach towards productivity. It focuses on the physical variables (discussed in 2.4.1). The second part of Figure 6.1 shows how the independent human resource variables (discussed in Chapter 7) influence productivity.

## 6.2 SOCIAL IMBALANCES

Figure 6.2 illustrates that the performance of the entire workforce influence productivity. This means that managers should optimally utilise the potential of all the employees. The diagram shows that the workforce of the South African National Defence Force is divided into two distinct categories, Non-Statutory Force and Statutory Force (discussed in 1.2 and 6.1). Social imbalances created a gulf between white and black Statutory Force members. Whites were trained, developed and motivated to achieve self-actualisation, which allowed them to benefit from corporate advancement. This allowed whites access to organisational resources, while depriving blacks. This disadvantaged blacks in terms of development, utilisation and corporate advancement. It also prevented the South African Defence Force from optimally utilising its entire workforce to increase its productivity. The military workforce was racially distinguished by appointment suffixes: PB for Permanent Bantu (Africans), PC for Permanent Coloureds and PE for Permanent Whites. This deprived blacks of corporate advancement

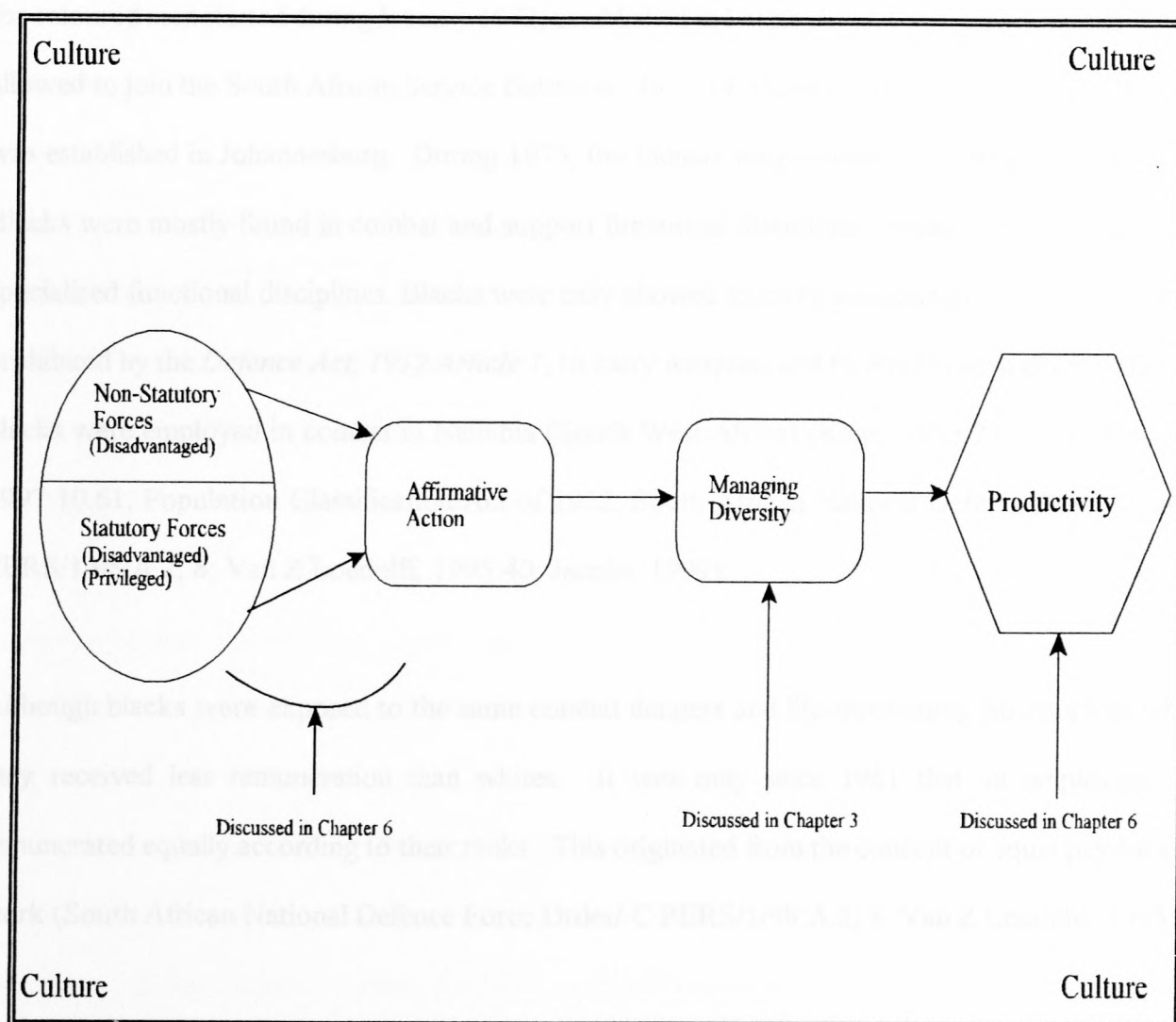
FIGURE 6.1: THE OPERATIONALISATION OF THE DISSERTATION

SOURCE : Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005



**FIGURE 6.2: THE PERFORMANCE OF THE ENTIRE WORKFORCE INCREASES  
PRODUCTIVITY**

**SOURCE :** Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005





and social and economic prosperity (Kahn, 1995:77; Defence Review, 1997:10.61; South African National Defence Force Order/ C PERS/1/98:A.2, 8; Van Z Loedolff, 1995:40; Jacobs, 1999).

The Population Classification Act of 1952 prohibited blacks from mixing with whites. The South African Defence Force went one step further in segregating the training of blacks along racial lines and different training facilities were established to accommodate each race group. The Voluntary Military Training for coloured men started during January 1973, established at Eerste River, Cape Town, when they were allowed to join the South African Service Battalion. In 1974, the first African battalion, 21 Battalion, was established in Johannesburg. During 1975, the Indians were trained at Salisbury Island, Durban. Blacks were mostly found in combat and support functional disciplines instead of technical and other specialised functional disciplines. Blacks were only allowed to carry weapons since 1974. They were prohibited by the *Defence Act, 1912 Article 7*, to carry weapons and be employed in combat. In 1976, blacks were employed in combat in Namibia (South West Africa) (Kahn, 1995:77; Defence Review, 1997:10.61; Population Classification Act of 1952; South African National Defence Force Order/ C PERS/1/98:A.2, 8; Van Z Loedolff, 1995:40; Jacobs, 1999).

Although blacks were exposed to the same combat dangers and life-threatening situations as whites, they received less remuneration than whites. It was only since 1981 that all employees were remunerated equally according to their ranks. This originated from the concept of equal pay for equal work (South African National Defence Force Order/ C PERS/1/98:A.2, 8; Van Z Loedolff, 1995:40).

The formal organisation perpetuated racism and sexism. Blacks occupied the lowest ranks and management positions and were therefore given the most menial jobs (drivers, chefs, medical orderlies,

clerks and storemen) (Wood, 1983:245). In terms of the human resource policies blacks could not be promoted to any rank higher than warrant officer class II. This means that blacks could not become officers and were therefore restricted in terms of corporate advancement. Blacks that were determined to exert their efforts and energies to change the tide that prevented them from advancement, reached a higher plain when human resource policies changed (Links, 2001). During 1975, after twenty years of service, the first coloured officers were appointed. However, after more than forty years of military service no blacks from the former South African Defence Force have been appointed to the General cadre (Block, 1992:9; Defence Review, 1997:10.61; Marks and Trapido, 1987:87; Robbins, 1990:35; South African National Defence Force Order/ C PERS/1/98:A.2, 8; Van Z Loedolff, 1995:40).

This was compounded by the integration of the seven armed forces into the South African National Defence Force: (1) it increased the force strength of the diverse workforce; (2) it increased the number of underdeveloped and underutilised disadvantaged employees; (3) it placed an additional burden on the training capacity and facilities; (4) Non-Statutory Forces had to be trained, developed and motivated before they could contribute towards productivity; (5) it created a gulf between the Non-Statutory Forces and Statutory Forces, because the former was affirmed and the latter were not; (6) it affected the attitude and moral of black Statutory Forces, which influenced their performance; (7) the White Statutory Force members were not sufficient to increase the effectiveness and productivity of the new South African National Defence Force; (8) it provided the South African National Defence Force with increased human resource potential, if trained, could contribute towards productivity; (9) it provided the South African National Defence Force with a workforce that could serve the communities. The exclusion of one component of the workforce remarkably influenced productivity, therefore the abilities, competencies and skills of the entire workforce are needed to enhance productivity (Links, 200; de

Villiers, 1998).

Figure 6.2 shows that affirmative action is a means to address the social imbalances (discussed in 6.3) of the past. The dotted line indicates that the disadvantaged Statutory Forces should be affirmed. Affirmative action in the South African National Defence Force was unlike other affirmative action programmes that are designed to empower a certain level of disadvantaged managers over a period of time. The Non-Statutory Forces are an integral part of the South African National Defence Force therefore the normal affirmative action process was not followed. It is because of government's intervention that they were affirmed and appointed to management (low - top) positions, without prior training, coaching and mentoring. In this context, affirmative action is an activity, not a process. As such, it failed to empower Non-Statutory Force members to do their job effectively. It added to employees frustration, because Non-Statutory Force members did not have someone (mentor) to show them how to do their job. Black Statutory Force members were reluctant to serve as mentors because of the way in which affirmative action was instituted (Leukes, 2002). Affirmative action created a gulf between blacks from Statutory Forces and Non-Statutory Forces. The South African National Defence Force has a larger diverse workforce, but not the right people for the appropriate positions. These employees should: (1) be empowered for the appropriate positions; (2) be developed so that they can use their potential to increase their performance, which enhances productivity; (3) be motivated so that they can change their attitude and achieve organisational goals. These can be done through managing diversity (discussed in Chapter 3) (January, 2002).

According to Cox, (1994:43) managing diversity is a means of empowering a diversity workforce to increase its performance and productivity. It makes provision for the disadvantaged employees,



including those who are excluded from the mainstream of affirmative action (see 1.2). It also makes provision for whites who are excluded from affirmative action. Figure 6.2 shows that managing diversity is not only a solution to managing social imbalances, but also to increasing employees' performance. Managing diversity ensures that the workforce is trained, developed and optimally utilised (Robbins, 2001:14-15).

Contemporary theories of racial biology prove that blacks and whites are equal in every respect, except their past achievements. The differences are ascribed to the political, social and economic inequalities that deprived blacks of education, training and development. Management's policy not to invest in training and developing the disadvantaged employees means they could not improve their competencies, abilities and skills, nor could they be optimally utilised to increase their performance. Therefore, discriminatory policies and practices negatively affected the life of disadvantaged employees and negatively influenced productivity. Managers' argument that the influx of blacks will automatically lower standards created the anticipated outcome. The feeling of inferiority engendered by the negative expectations lead to an internalised negative self-perception amongst the disadvantaged employees. The feeling of inferiority resulted in demotivation, a reluctance to try harder and a withdrawal from competitive situations. These reinforced the negative expectations from whites who believed that a large component of black employees lowers productivity because they are inefficient, ineffective, unproductive and they cannot be trained and developed. They also believe that blacks are not self-motivated to achieve self-actualisation and cannot be motivated, therefore they cannot manage and thus cannot be promoted to management positions (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:455; Cronje et al. 2001:83-88; Hellriegel et al. 2001:101-102; Human, 1996:5-6, 95).

The dominant white male perspective is seen in the following activities: (1) they control and manage the South African National Defence Force; (2) they create an organisational culture that benefits them in influencing the behaviour of other employees; (3) they design the strategies and structures and formulate policies that governs the lives of employees; (4) they restricted the promotion (corporate advancement) of blacks to that of non-commissioned officers; (5) they appoint women to positions where they are subordinate to white men (South African National Defence Force Order/ C PERS/1/98:A.2, 8; Van Z Loedolff, 1995:40; Wood, 1983:245).

It could be deducted that past achievements of whites is the only difference between them and blacks. This truism suggests that blacks can achieve the level of performance of whites if they receive special training and development (discussed in Chapters 3 and 7). This will enable blacks to improve their abilities, skills and competencies, so that they can increase their performance and productivity. Development is a process therefore, it will take time before blacks can perform at the same level as whites. The difference can be ascribed to military experience (whites) and military inexperience (blacks). Managers should motivate and treat employees equally. This will help disadvantaged employees to overcome their inferiority and increase their self-esteem and self-confidence. It will encourage employees to believe in their abilities, which will enable them to increase their performance. Blacks were not the only ones who were discriminated against; women experienced a similar process of marginalisation.

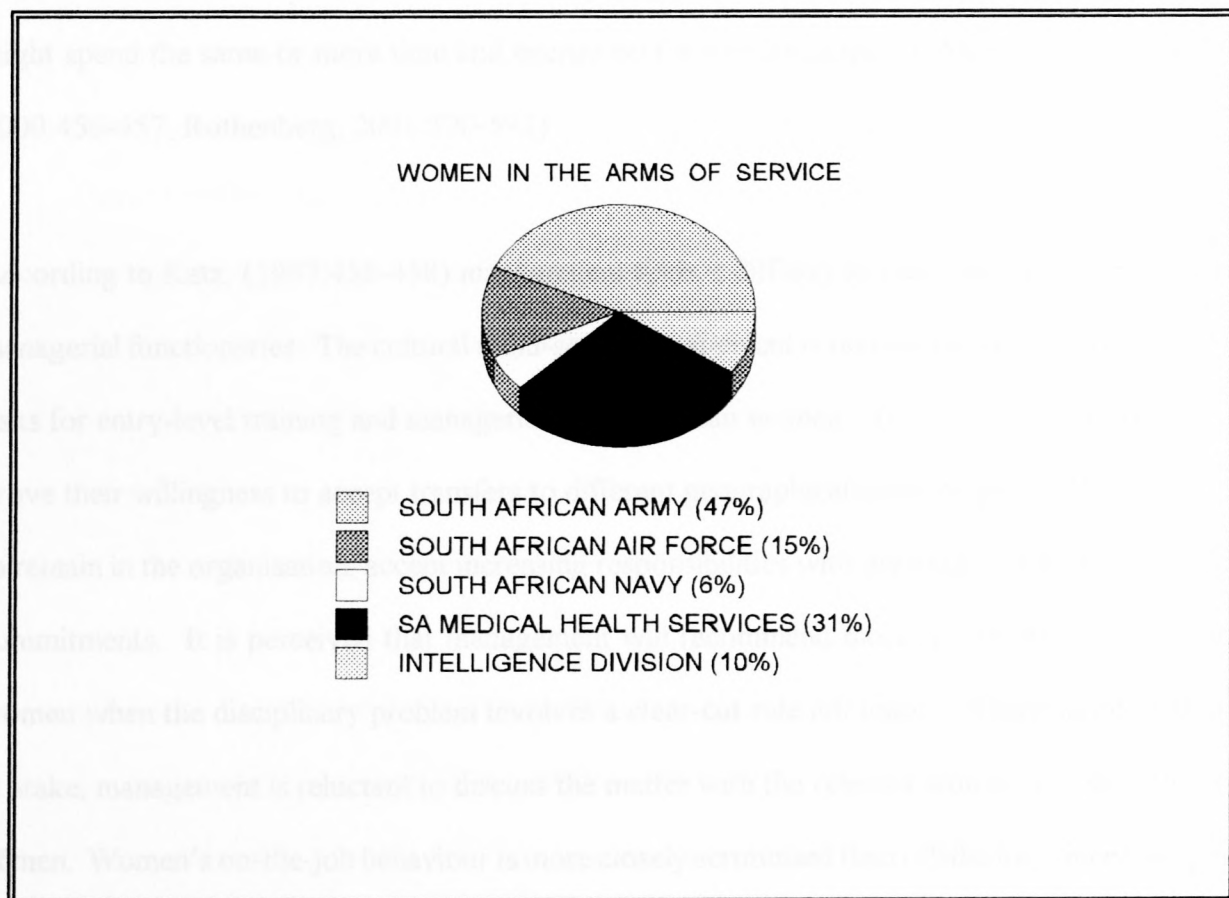
In 1972, white women joined the South African Defence Force whereas black women were allowed to join in 1984, more than a decade later. The difference is seen in the seniority, career prospects and hierarchical advancement of white women. The later entrance of women into the South African Defence

Force means that they will remain behind their male counterparts in years to come. The difference between men and women is seen in seniority, career prospects and hierarchical advancement. For example, the heads of the arms of service and military regional commanders are filled by men (De la Rey, 1990:41; Defence Review, 1997:10.61; South African National Defence Force Order/ C PERS/1/98:B.2; South African Yearbook, 1996: 2; Van Onselen, 1998; White Paper on Defence 1996:6.37).

Figure 6.3 illustrates that the South African National Defence Force consists of 20,14% women, of which 13% are uniformed employees. Women in the South African Army 47%, the South African Medical Health Services, 31%, the South African Air Force, 15%, the Intelligence Division, 10%, and the South African Navy, 6%. In the South African National Defence Force, male officers total 77% and female officers 23%. Women are not well represented at higher management levels. The majority of women are to be found in the lower rank structure of both officers and non-commissioned officers. The statistics indicate that racial and gender discrimination is deeply rooted in the military culture (see Figure 6.4A) (Defence Review, 1997:4; South African National Defence Force Order/ C PERS 1/98:B.4, B.5; White Paper on Affirmative Action in Government Gazette 23 April 1998:23).

According to Zietsman, (1999) women are perceived to be submissive, passive, dependent, diligent, imaginative and sensitive to the feelings of others. When women reveal behaviour contrary to what has been described, they are seen as abnormal, undesirable, competitive and a threat to men. However, when men act abnormally, undesirably and competitively, their behaviour is accepted as normal since competition from other men is approved. Women employees are obliged to participate in the social activities associated with their husbands' careers, but much less career support is expected from the husbands of working women. This makes it difficult for married women in the South African National



**FIGURE 6.3: REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN ARMS OF SERVICE****SOURCE: DEFENCE REVIEW (1997:4)**

Defence Force to attend military social activities, because it is expected of them to support their husbands. However, it benefits those women whose husbands are in the South African National Defence Force. Therefore, it is easier for men to combine their professional and social lives and create the impression that they are dedicated to their work. However, it is more difficult for women to combine their professional and social lives, because of the demands of rearing children and household responsibilities. This creates the impression that women are less committed to their work, although they might spend the same or more time and energy on the job than men do (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:456-457; Rothenberg, 2001:590-592).

According to Katz, (1997:456-458) management finds it difficult to treat men and women equally as managerial functionaries. The cultural mind-set of management is that young men are considered better risks for entry-level training and managerial positions than women. To be considered, women should prove their willingness to accept transfers to different geographical areas, to pledge their commitment to remain in the organisation, accept increasing responsibilities with pressing time schedules and travel commitments. It is perceived that management will recommend more severe disciplinary action for women when the disciplinary problem involves a clear-cut rule infraction. Where sensitive issues are at stake, management is reluctant to discuss the matter with the relevant women, but seek the counsel of men. Women's on-the-job behaviour is more closely scrutinised than off-the job, since their personal lives seem to be considered beyond the domain of organisational control. These discrepancies can be dealt with if management is willing to apply managing diversity as a tool to manage the diverse workforce (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:418-419; Mauer and Taylor, 1994:232-234).

In order to avoid ambiguous interpretation and misunderstanding, it is necessary to understand relevant

In order to avoid ambiguous interpretation and misunderstanding, it is necessary to understand relevant terminology as defined below (Government Gazette 23 April 1998:51; South African National Defence Force Order/ C PERS/1/98:A):

- “Broad representation” refers to the achievement of a Public Service that is inclusive of all historically disadvantaged groups in a manner that represents the composition of the population within all occupational classes and at all post levels of the Public Service.
- “Disadvantaged groups” refer to those groups identified as having been unfairly discriminated against on the basis of past legislation, policies, prejudice and stereotypes.
- “Equal employment opportunity” refers to the formal right of all to be treated equally at places of employment irrespective of race, gender and disability.
- “Unfair discrimination” refers to measures, attitudes and behaviours that obstruct the enjoyment of equal rights and opportunities in employment for black people, women and people with disabilities.
- The term blacks include Africans, Asians and Coloureds.

It is clear from the above definitions that proportional representation of the demographics of the South African population should be reflected at all management levels of the South African National Defence Force. It means that all historically disadvantaged employees should be affirmed in order to enjoy equal employment opportunities because apartheid legislation discriminated and disadvantaged all blacks and women. Any hindrance from management to prevent the achievement of the above is seen as discrimination against the disadvantaged employees. The South African National Defence Force’s decision to affirm only Non-Statutory Forces and women means that it discriminates against the already disadvantaged black Statutory Forces. This means that the integration was an artificial social



Force. The situation was further confused by appointing Non-Statutory Force members to “shadow” hierarchical positions. It was expected of the Statutory Force members, the current post incumbents, to mentor the Non-Statutory Force members. It became obvious that the Statutory Force members were reluctant to mentor the Non-Statutory Forces: (1) blacks has a negative attitude because they were not affirmed; (2) whites feared for losing their positions (Government Gazette 23 April 1998:51; South African National Defence Force Order/ C PERS/1/98:A; Zietsman, 1999).

The original study by Frederick Taylor (see 2.2) of employee performance was intended to provide dignity and pride to the workforce, particularly those at the lowest level of the hierarchy. They were also encouraged to increase their output. This generated productivity improvement methodologies that were economically profitable, but did nothing to change the power relationship between supervisors and subordinates. In the South African National Defence Force work life was further degraded by institutionalised racism and sexism (discussed in above) (Block, 1992:9; Links, 2001; Marks and Trapido, 1987:87; Robbins, 1990:35; Wood, 1983:245).

It could be deduced that social imbalances deprived blacks and women from using their abilities, competencies and skills to achieve self-actualisation, increase their performance and enhance productivity. It prevented management from optimally utilising the diverse workforce to accomplish organisational goals and objectives. Social imbalances robbed the South African Defence Force from achieving increased performance and productivity and had a detrimental effect on the disadvantaged employees therefore its recurrence should be prevented. The South African National Defence Force has to eradicate all forms of social discrimination, which prevent blacks from achieving corporate advancement and being developed and optimally utilised. Failure to achieve this will result in the

recurrence of underdeveloped and underutilisation of employees' potential, which influence performance and productivity. Affirmative action is a managerial tool designed to deal with social imbalances. The next section discusses affirmative action.

### **6.3 AFFIRMATIVE ACTION**

The previous section discussed how social imbalances created a gulf between blacks and whites, which affected their motivation, management, development and utilisation and influenced their performance and quality of life. It prevented the disadvantaged employees from using their abilities, competencies and skills to increase productivity. This section focuses on affirmative action as a means to address social imbalances and also as a human resource management tool to capitalise on the abilities, skills and competencies of the diverse workforce to increase their performance.

The South African National Defence Force has integrated a large workforce that has been disadvantaged and it is thus necessary to discuss the steps that need to be taken to address social imbalances. The 1999 promulgation of the South African National Defence Force's equal opportunities policy is an indication of management's commitment to deal with discriminatory policies and practices. The policy states that equal employment opportunities are the rights of employees to participate in programmes to which they are entitled. Such programmes should be free from social and institutional bias (Department of Defence Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action Policy, 1997:4-5, 8). Employees should be evaluated in an unbiased manner based on their performance, abilities, qualifications and physical well-being. The hierarchical advancement of employees may not be limited due to their race, gender, ethnic origins, colour, age or disability. The law should be the only prohibiting mechanism that prevents employees

colour, age or disability. The law should be the only prohibiting mechanism that prevents employees from achieving their goals and objectives (Department of Defence Equal Opportunities, 1998:A.1, A-4; White Paper on National Defence, 1996:36).

The South African Defence Force is commitment to deal with social imbalances. Some of these changes were in (Department of Defence Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action Policy, 1997:4-5, 8; Department of Defence Equal Opportunities, 1998:A.1, A-4; White Paper on National Defence, 1996:36):

- affirming disadvantaged Non-Statutory Force employees;
- appointing blacks to senior and top management positions;
- targeting the present and future needs of disadvantaged employees;
- entrenching the rights of women to be employed in all functional disciplines;
- dealing with all forms of sexual harassment;
- appointing the first black woman, Major General Sedibe to the General cadre in 1996, and in 1997, appointing the first white woman, Major General van der Poel to the General cadre;
- instituting mentorship to empower disadvantaged employees to master their functional disciplines;
- changing the suffix appointments of black (Permanent Black, PB) and coloureds (Permanent Coloured, PC) to Permanent European (PE); and
- introducing special development programmes (fast tracking and mentorship) to accommodate the corporate advancement of Non-Statutory Force employees.

According to South African National Defence Force, (Orders/C Pers/1/98), as illustrated in Figure 6.4,



FIGURE 6.4: WORKFORCE REPRESENTATION

SOURCE: SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE ORDERS/C PERS (1/98)

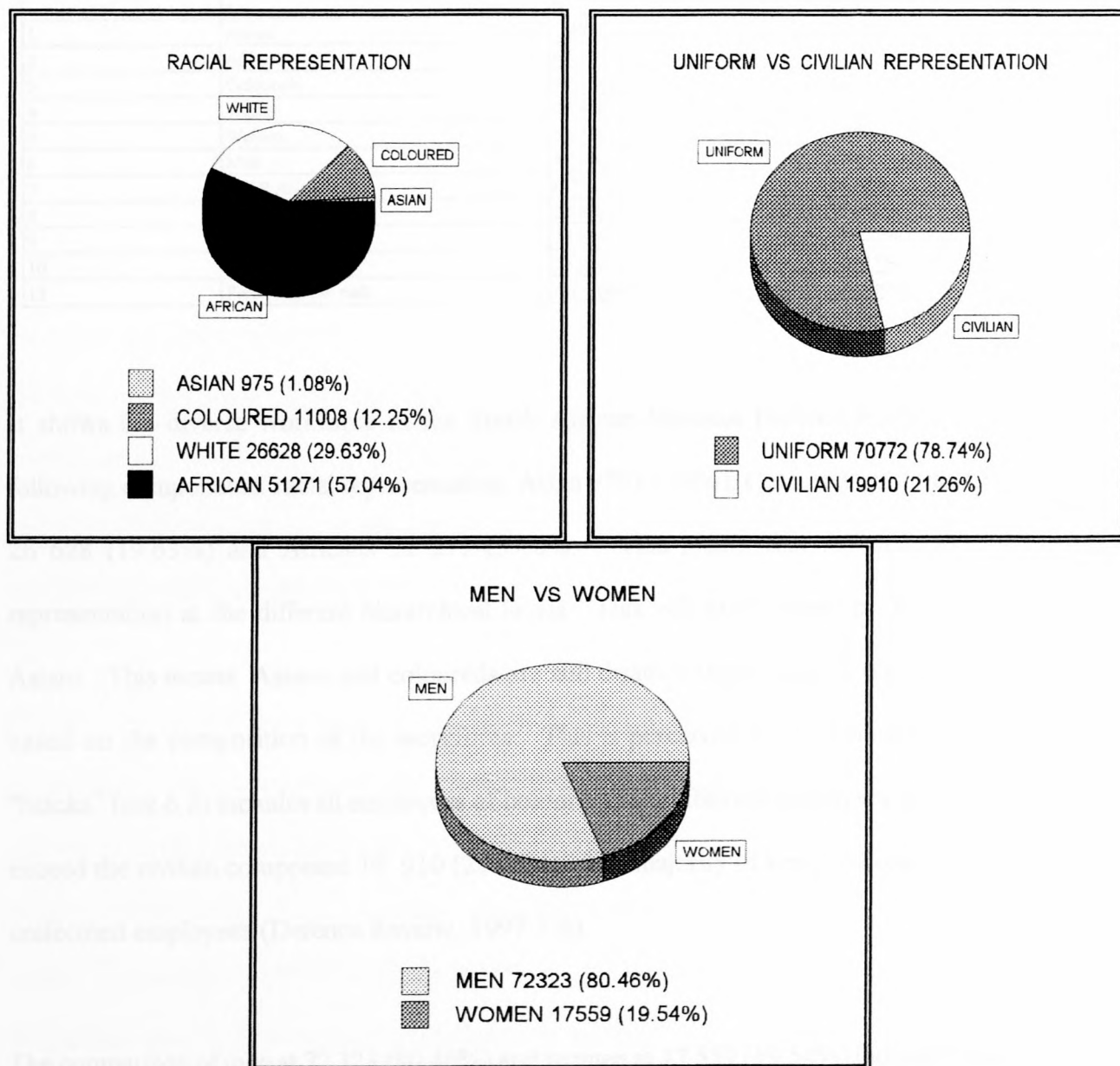


FIGURE 6.4A: WORKFORCE REPRESENTATION FOR 2002

SOURCE: SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE/C PERS (1/02)

Serial No	Race	Current Ratio	Policy Ratio
	a	b	c
1	Asians	1.4%	0.75%
2	Africans	62.7%	64.68%
3	Coloureds	10.5%	10.22%
4	Whites	25.4%	24.35%
5	Women	14.4%	30%
6	Men	85.6%	70%
7	PSAP Asians	0.7%	0.75%
8	PSAP Africans	55.6%	64.68%
9	PSAP Coloureds	18.6%	10.22%
10	PSAP Whites	25.2%	24.35%
11	Percentage per rank	See figure 7.11 A	As above

It shows the diverse workforce of the South African National Defence Force, April 1998, in the following components: racial representation: Asian 975 (1.08%), Coloureds 11 008 (12.25%), Whites 26 628 (19.63%) and Africans 51 271 (57.04). This means that Africans will have a greater representation at the different hierarchical levels. This will be followed by Whites, Coloureds and Asians. This means Asians and coloureds are still disadvantaged because corporate advancement is based on the composition of the workforce. This is perceived as discrimination because the term “blacks” (see 6.2) includes all employees of colour. The uniformed employees at 70 772 (78.74%) far exceed the civilian component 19 910 (21.26%). The majority of key positions are therefore held by uniformed employees (Defence Review, 1997:5-6).

The comparison of men at 72 323 (80.46%) and women at 17 559 (19.54%) indicates that women work in a male dominated environment. Women are thus not well represented at the higher hierarchical levels and experience gender discrimination. The challenge for the South African National Defence Force is

to achieve representation in gender and race at all hierarchical levels, which reflects the demographics of the South African population (Defence Review, 1997:5-6; South African National Defence Force Orders/C Pers/1/98).

According to South African National Defence Force, (C PERS /1/02) the South African National Defence Force has not achieved the prescribed policy ratios of representation and it has therefore failed to achieve affirmative action objectives. Blacks have not advanced to reach the prescribed level of affirmative action. The levels of women in the South African National Defence Force and in different ranks are not in accordance with the percentages reflected in Figures 6.4 and 6.4A. These figures reflect the statistics for April 2002. Blacks are in the majority in the lower ranks (private to sergeant and lieutenant), while whites are the majority in the higher ranks (captain to major general and staff sergeant to warrant officer class 1). A comparison between Figures 6.4, 6.4A and 7.11A indicates a gradual movement toward the achievement of the prescribed policy ratios (Leukes, 2002).

Figure 6.2 illustrates that managing diversity (see 3.5) is a tool that can be used to stimulate employees to use their potential to increase their performance, which enhances productivity. Managing diversity reduces interpersonal conflict among the employees as respect for diversity increases. It enhances working relationships based on mutual trust and employees' increased knowledge of multi-cultural issues. It creates a shared organisational vision and greater commitment among the workforce. It stimulates greater innovation and flexibility as employees participate in key decision-making and problem-solving groups. It increases productivity as more employees' efforts are directed at accomplishing tasks and spending less energy on managing interpersonal conflict, cultural clashes or disputes (Cox, 1994:43; Moskos, 1994:2-3).



It could be deducted that affirmative action is a human resource management tool: (1) to recruit, select and appoint employees whose competencies and skills would not have been recognised; (2) to train and develop Non-Statutory Force employees and women with potential that otherwise would not have been developed; (3) to optimally utilise selected Non-Statutory Force employees and women who otherwise would not have been utilised; (4) it affirmed only the historically disadvantaged Non-Statutory Force employees. Affirmative action is a motivational tool: (1) to encourage Non-Statutory Force employees and women to achieve self-actualisation; (2) to stimulate Non-Statutory Force employees and women to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity. Affirmative action is an organisational cultural tool: (1) to create an environment in which Non-Statutory Force employees and women can achieve the above; (2) to formulate policies and establish practices that positively influence disadvantaged employees' and women's behaviour.

Affirmative action also has negative consequences that are discussed here. It is assumed that Non-Statutory Force employees experienced joy and happiness (intrinsic stimulus) (discussed in 4.5) for being affirmed (extrinsic rewards) (discussed in 4.5). This truism means that extrinsic rewards should have motivated the Non-Statutory Force employees to increase their performance. It means that affirmation should motivate the Non-Statutory Force employees to experience positive reinforcement (discussed in 4.6). For example, soldiers have to work harder if they want to be promoted to the next higher rank. This was not the case as discussed in 1.2 and 6.2. Even if the Non-Statutory Force employees was motivated, they could not increase their performance because their abilities were not developed (see 1.7, 6.2 and 6.4).

Affirmative action failed to intrinsically motivate the disadvantaged Statutory Force employees to use

their potential for increasing their performance in achieving organisational goals, because the South Africa National Defence Force omitted to affirm them. Affirmative action failed in creating an environment in which disadvantaged and privileged Statutory Force employees could use their potential to increase their performance and productivity (see Figure 6.2).

The effects that social imbalances and affirmative action has on productivity is discussed in the next section.

#### **6.4 THE MILITARY APPROACH TOWARD PRODUCTIVITY**

The previous section focused on how affirmative action created mechanisms and opportunities for disadvantaged Non-Statutory Force employees to be affirmed, improve their development and achieve self-actualisation. It also discussed why all historically disadvantaged people did not benefit from affirmative action. This section discusses how social imbalances and affirmative action influence productivity. It alludes to how the physical variables (see 1.2, 2.4.1 and Figures 1.3, 2.4 and 6.1) influence employees' performance and productivity, and how it can be used as a benchmark to determine future corporate advancement.

The military reign of dominance and the achievements during military campaigns, such as the Angolan Civil War and the South West African People Organisation's war in Namibia (then South West Africa), became the assumed measurement of productivity in the military. As these military campaigns ended, the South African Defence Force focused its effort on improving the quality of equipment and armament in order to increase productivity (de Villiers, 1998).

The South African National Defence Force's productivity improvement programme was launched on 25 November 1986. The purpose was to increase the levels of efficiency and effectiveness of the employees and the organisation as a whole. The intention was to optimally utilise state funds to achieve the highest possible level of operational preparedness, develop a sense of responsibility when spending public funds and create a competitive and participative spirit amongst the workforce. The following strategy was followed to facilitate the effectiveness of these plans: the centralisation of policy formulation; the co-ordination and decentralisation of productivity improvement programmes; training of selected employees in the arms of service and staff divisions in principles and techniques of productivity to enable them to manage their own productivity (Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:4; Eberlein, 1991:44; de Villiers, 1998).

Since 1987, a variety of productivity improvement projects were launched to keep abreast of rapidly changing circumstances. Some of these projects included: Copycat, Project Bullion, Productivity Measurement, Suggestion System, Quality Circles and Investment in Excellence. Productivity improvement projects were launched as a means to involve employees in productivity. Employees who contributed toward productivity received bonuses, which reinforced positive behaviour and encouraged others to pursue the same course of action. These projects were means to make the employees aware of the necessity to be productive. It also encouraged them to be more creative in designing work methods and equipment to increase productivity (Thiart, 1995:40-43; de Villiers, 1998).

According to De Villiers (1998), the initial steps of introducing productivity as a way of life and integrating it into the strategic management plan was not realised because of the absence of direct and more noticeable management commitment and support. This was evident in the general lack of



productivity improvement orientation and training of senior and top line managers and leaders. It was seen in the inability to obtain management's approval for the development and implementation of sound productivity management information systems. These attitudes influenced the willingness of employees to become involve in productivity programmes. The South African National Defence Force had to deal with the above challenges in order to achieve increased productivity.

✱ The period between the implementation of productivity programmes and the integration of the seven armed forces into the South African National Defence Force was too short a time to yield the desired results. The disparity in military standards among the integrated armed forces necessitated a review of productivity. It became evident that human resource management (discussed in Chapters 3) and motivation (discussed in Chapters 4) were major factors that could improve employees' performance and enhance productivity. Another factor involved the establishment of an organisational culture (discussed in Chapters 5), which would improve the work life of all employees and help them to achieve organisational and individual goals and objectives (de Villiers, 1998).

According to De Vries (1998), productivity within the South African National Defence Force is guided by principles of warfare, which serve as doctrine and require thorough planning and execution of operations. Eight of the principles of war point toward effectiveness needed for successful conduct of war. They are selection and maintenance of the aim, offensive action, surprise, unity of command, economy of effort, security, concentration of effort/power and flexibility. Failure to adhere to these principles may certainly lead to the waste of irreplaceable resources, such as lives, material, time and lead to total defeat. The South African National Defence Force's institutional obligation toward society is to use its resources to accomplish its goals and objectives efficiently and effectively (Department of

Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1997:1).

It is difficult to quantify in real monetary terms the achievement of productivity at the strategic level. The results of the decisions taken at this level only become visible and tangible on the tactical level. However, various projects and actions are initiated at this level. At the tactical level, productivity improvement actions are managed by arms of service. This allows for the participation of employees' initiatives, as well as satisfying the unique vision, mission and value systems of arms the of service. The South African National Defence Force is a government organisation that ensures the safety of all South Africans. Therefore, the effective execution of its mandate should serve as a means to determine the level of productivity. However, there are internal and external factors that influence the calculation of productivity. These factors are alluded to in this section. Unlike the private sector, productivity within the South African National Defence Force is service driven. Therefore, when determining productivity, the role, culture and principles that govern the functioning of the military as an institution, should be taken into consideration (de Villiers, 1998; Gaither and Frazier, 2002:712-714; Ricketts, 1997:98-99).

Productivity as defined by Callahan et al. (1986:506), is the concept that is adopted by the South African National Defence Force, namely:

$$\text{Productivity} = \frac{\text{Output: Result Achieved}}{\text{Input: Resources Consumed}}$$

According to the above formula there are two basic approaches to input: First, human resources transform production into consumable goods and services. The diverse workforce can increase its performance and productivity provided employees are trained, qualified, motivated and optimally utilised, because they can draw from a wide spectrum of skills, competencies, personalities and abilities

(see 2.4 and 3.2). Training increases employee's potential and performance, which enhances productivity (see 3.4). However, the exclusion of blacks from other functional disciplines (discussed in 1.2 and 6.2) meant that they could not optimally use their potential to increase their performance, which could further enhance productivity. The South African Army used simulation training to train tank and missile gunners and armoured car drivers. The savings incurred were the following: B-vehicle simulator R131 000,00 per year per training unit; armoured car simulators - R286 800,00 per year per 60 drivers; and missile armour simulators - R12 780,00 per course of 12 students. The savings could have been more provided blacks were equally trained and optimally utilised as whites. Simulation training has proved to be a means of cost effective training because it provides opportunities for employees to increase their skills and efficiency. It reduces the amount of ammunition used for training purposes, which reduces the training period and allows employees to increase productivity at an earlier stage. It reduces accidents that may result in sick leave, medical expenditure or absence from work (Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:14-15; de Vries, 1998).

The second approach to input is technology and capital that concentrate on the improvement of work methods to increase employees' performance. The South African National Defence Force operates obsolete armament, equipment and outdated technology. These resources affect the efficiency and effectiveness of human resources. The employees are trained, developed and motivated to improve their abilities, skills and competencies, which enables them to increase their performance and enhance productivity. However, the lack of appropriate advanced technology and sophisticated armament and equipment prohibits them from effectively accomplishing organisational goals and objectives. Therefore, for the South African National Defence Force to achieve increased performance and productivity, they should make physical and capital investments to acquire advanced technology and sophisticated



armament and equipment (Cronje et al. 2001:482-483; Eberlein, 1991:49; Ibid, 1996:44-46; Gaither and Frazier, 2002:698-699; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:71-73).

According to January (2002), the current operational capability of the South African National Defence Force hampers it from effectively executing its mandate. The South African Navy still uses the French Daphne-Class submarines, which are more than 30 years old and only one is still operational. The River Class minesweepers are nearly 50 years old. The 9 strike craft are more than 20 years old. However, without these submarines the South African Navy is unable to do extensive deep-sea patrolling to defend and protect the maritime sovereignty of South Africa. The South African Air Force's jet fighter capability has been reduced to two squadrons, the ageing mirage F-1s and the thirty-year-old Impala Jet trainer. The South African Army's main battle tank is almost fifty years old and the Ratel has been in service for more than twenty-five years. This is changing as the arms procurement is becoming a reality (Budget Review, 1997:8-13; Sunday Argus, 29 December, 2002).

The multi-billion rand arms procurement will provide the South African National Defence Force with the capability to fulfil its obligations. The South African Navy is getting: 3 new German submarines, 4 German corvettes and minesweepers to replace its current capability. The South African Air Force is getting: 40 light utility helicopters, 24 Hawk fighters to replace the Impala trainers, 28 Grippens, the 9 dual-seat and 19 single-seat will replace the dual-seat Cheetah D and single-seat Cheetah C fighters. The Corvettes have a multipurpose and multi-capability for executing the various naval missions. The corvettes will improve and extend the navy's surveillance operation and sea rescue capabilities. Their tasks, among others, will include: (1) regular patrols for the protection of South Africa's marine resources against poaching and pollution in economical exclusion zones; (2) law enforcement at sea with

regard to the smuggling of drugs and weapons; (3) search and rescue missions and support for land forces as well as the transport of limited equipment and personnel (Sunday Times, 4 February 2001; Sunday Argus, 29 December, 2002; January, 2002).

The submarines will be used for obtaining information on illegal fishing and other activities in territorial waters; in support of international peacetime joint operations; to act as strategic deterrence against future aggressors; to collect electronic and communication intelligence; and to patrol and protect natural resources in vital areas of national interests, including fishing zones. The South African Air Force will use the helicopters for training, provide emergency medical services and humanitarian aid, search and rescue, forward airborne control in operations, patrol operations and support to the South African Police Services. The Hawks will replace the Impala trainers, and will be used in: operational fighter training; fighter instructor training; fighter consolidation training; search and rescue; border line control; limited tactical reconnaissance; and forward airborne control. The Grippens will replace the Cheetahs and will be used in tactical offensive fire support (land and maritime); counter air operations and interception; tactical reconnaissance; autonomous air operations and effective airspace control; and operational conversion training (Sunday Times, 4 February 2001; Sunday Argus, 29 December, 2002; January, 2002).

The new technology (arms procurement) can be used to serve as a benchmark for future development, productivity and corporate advancement: (1) it is a first of its kind for all employees and provides equal opportunities for all employees; (2) it provides opportunities for all employees to learn new skills in order to effectively utilise new technology to do their job; (3) it affects all training particularly combat and staff training, which is needed for senior appointments; (4) it allows employees to be developed

according to their abilities that can be used to determine their development (see Figures 7.5 and 9.1) and corporate progress. Despite the above mentioned obstacles, the South African National Defence Force is slowly progressing towards increased productivity. Some of these changes are in: (1) increasing the abilities and competencies of the Non-Statutory Force employees to operate military armament and equipment; (2) managing an increased workforce, while experiencing a reduction in the defence budget; (3) training and developing disadvantaged employees and appointing them to senior and top management positions; (4) affirming disadvantaged employees and implementing equal opportunities to all employees; (5) using the social capability to communicate and interact with all communities; (6) training leaders and managers to motivate the diverse workforce and to effectively manage the resources of the South African National Defence Force; (7) utilising the human resource capability to serve all communities. The diverse workforce (Statutory Forces) is trained, qualified, competent and professional and (Non-Statutory Forces) being trained and becoming qualified, competent and professional. The diverse workforce can draw from a wide spectrum of competencies, experiences, qualification, skills, abilities and personalities, which make them more productive, effective and creative, enabling them to solve complex problems and produce better goods and services (see 5.3.2; 6.3; 7.3; 7.4.;7.5).

It could be deduced that, as illustrated in Figure 6.2, managing diversity can be used as a tool to enhance the empowerment, development and optimal utilisation of each employee according to his or her potential. According to the productivity cycle (see 2.4), the South African National Defence Force is in its infancy. It will take years before the South African National Defence Force achieves increased productivity.



## 6.5 CONCLUSION

Discriminatory laws, policies and practices disadvantaged blacks and deprived them of corporate advancement, development, utilisation and self-actualisation. It created a gulf between the performance of blacks and whites and negatively affected the organisation's performance and productivity. In the South African National Defence Force the disadvantaged Non-Statutory Force employees were affirmed and enjoyed equal employment opportunities. However, the disadvantaged Statutory Force employees are not all affirmed and gender discrimination is still prevalent. The disadvantaged Non-Statutory Force employees are being trained, developed and mentored. The diverse workforce uses cultural differences, abilities, competencies, qualifications, experiences, skills and personalities to increase performance and enhance productivity. This makes employees more efficient, effective, industrious and productive than a homogeneous workforce. It means that the entire workforce should be trained, developed and optimally utilised, so that they can effectively contribute towards increased productivity. Therefore, the abilities, competencies and skills of whites should also be optimally utilised.

According to the South African National Defence Force's productivity formula, the human resource variables (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture) play a crucial role in increasing productivity. However, without the physical variables increased productivity will not be possible because they determine employees' efficiency and effectiveness.

The employees lack the force multiplier, armament, equipment and technology to increase their

performance and enhance productivity. The defence budget constraints prevent the South African National Defence Force from acquiring sophisticated armament and new technology. This results in the imbalance of input that affects the outcome of productivity. Increased productivity can only be achieved when the physical variables are increased. The multi-billion rand arms procurement will alleviate the above challenges.

Chapters 6 served to describe how the abilities, competencies, skills and performance of the entire workforce increase productivity. It showed how the exclusion of one component of the workforce from effective management negatively influences productivity. It also showed the role that the physical variables play in influencing productivity. The effect of the status quo as described in Chapters 6 will be explored in terms of productivity in Chapter 7. Chapter 7 will analyse the human resource variables that influence productivity in the South African National Defence Force.

## CHAPTER 7

### **ANALYSIS OF FACTORS INFLUENCING PRODUCTIVITY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE**

#### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

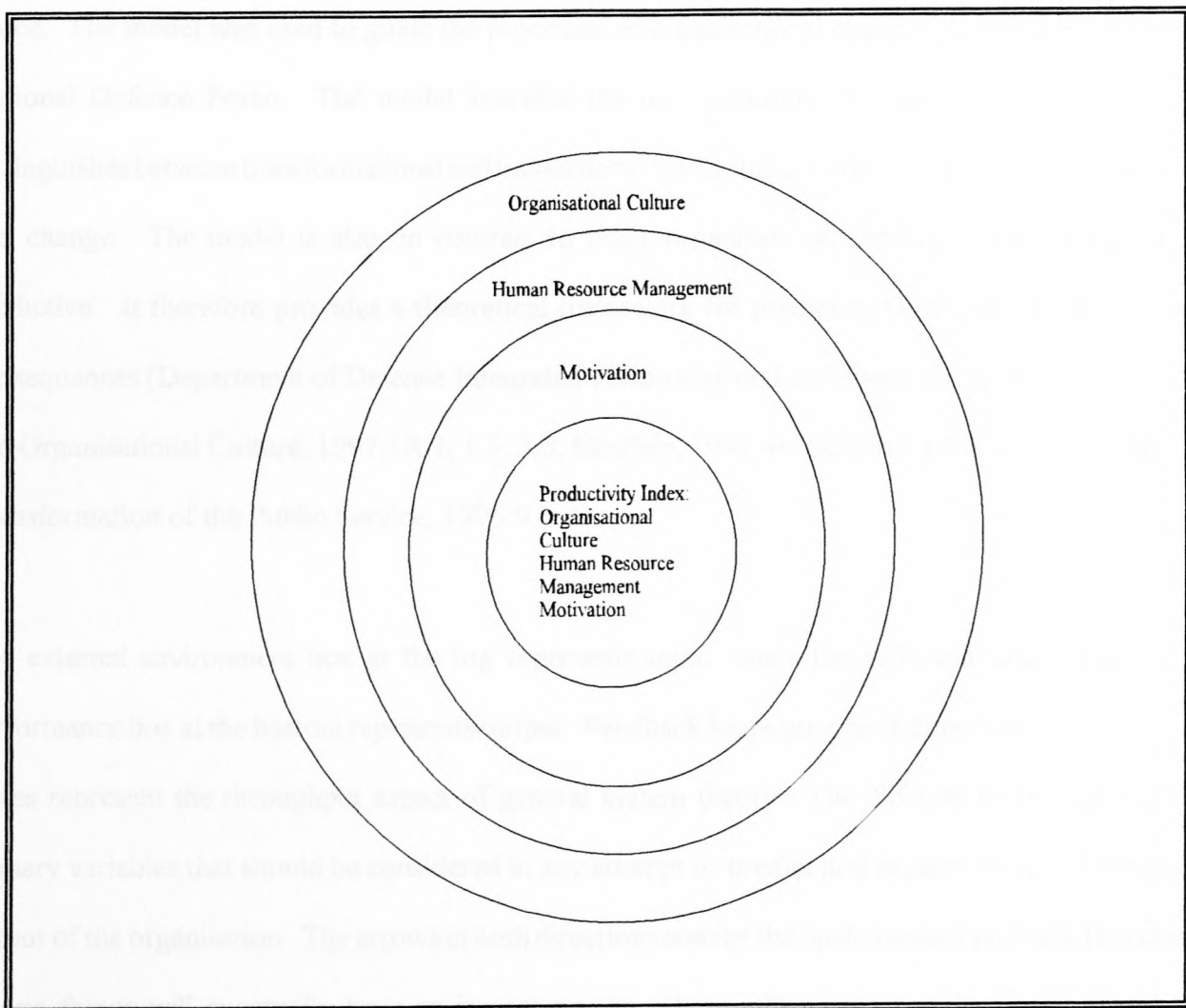
Chapter 6 mainly explored the role of human resource variables and their influence on social imbalances and productivity, but also alluded to the constraints that capital and technology have on the efficiency and effectiveness of human resources. It discussed how discriminatory legislation denied blacks and women from being developed and achieving self-actualisation. It showed how social imbalances prohibited blacks and women from using their potential to increase their performance, which could have enhanced productivity. The chapter focused how the diverse workforce can increase performance and productivity provided employees are trained, optimally utilised, motivated and work in an environment that improves their standard of living and quality of life, because they can draw from a wide spectrum of skills, competencies, personalities and abilities to increase their performance and productivity.

This chapter presents an analysis of productivity in the South African National Defence Force and discusses the three independent variables that affects it. Figure 7.1 illustrates the logical progression of the chapter: (1) creating a right atmosphere; (2) managing people effectively; (3) motivating people to increase their performance and productivity.



FIGURE: 7.1: APPROACH TO PRODUCTIVITY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE

SOURCE: Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005



## 7.2 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

This section discusses the role that organisational culture plays in creating a right atmosphere (see Figure 7.2) that influences employees' behaviour and motivates them to increase their performance. The Burke-Litwin model of organisational performance in Figure 7.3 was chosen by the Department of Defence as the theoretical foundation to do an organisational diagnosis of the South African National Defence Force. The model was used to guide the processes of organisational change within the South African National Defence Force. The model specifies the inter-relations of organisational variables, and distinguishes between transformational and transactional leadership dynamics in organisational behaviour and change. The model is also, in contrast to other organisational models, both descriptive and predictive. It therefore provides a theoretical framework for predicting behaviour and performance consequences (Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:1A.1, 1.5, 3.3; Eberlein, 1991:46; Schmickl, 1988:70; White Paper on Transformation of the Public Service, 1996:9.3-4).

The external environment box at the top represents input, while the individual and organisational performance box at the bottom represents output. Feedback loops go in both directions. The remaining boxes represent the throughput aspect of general system theory. The different boxes represent the primary variables that should be considered in any attempt to predict and explain the total behavioural output of the organisation. The arrows in both directions convey the open-systems principle that change in one factor will eventually have an impact on the others. The impact is, however, not always proportional, since organisational culture and system influence each another. But organisational culture has a stronger influence on systems. Organisational change stems more from environmental impact than from any other factors. Moreover, with respect to organisational change, the variables of strategy,

FIGURE 7.2: CREATING A RIGHT ATMOSPHERE

SOURCE : Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005

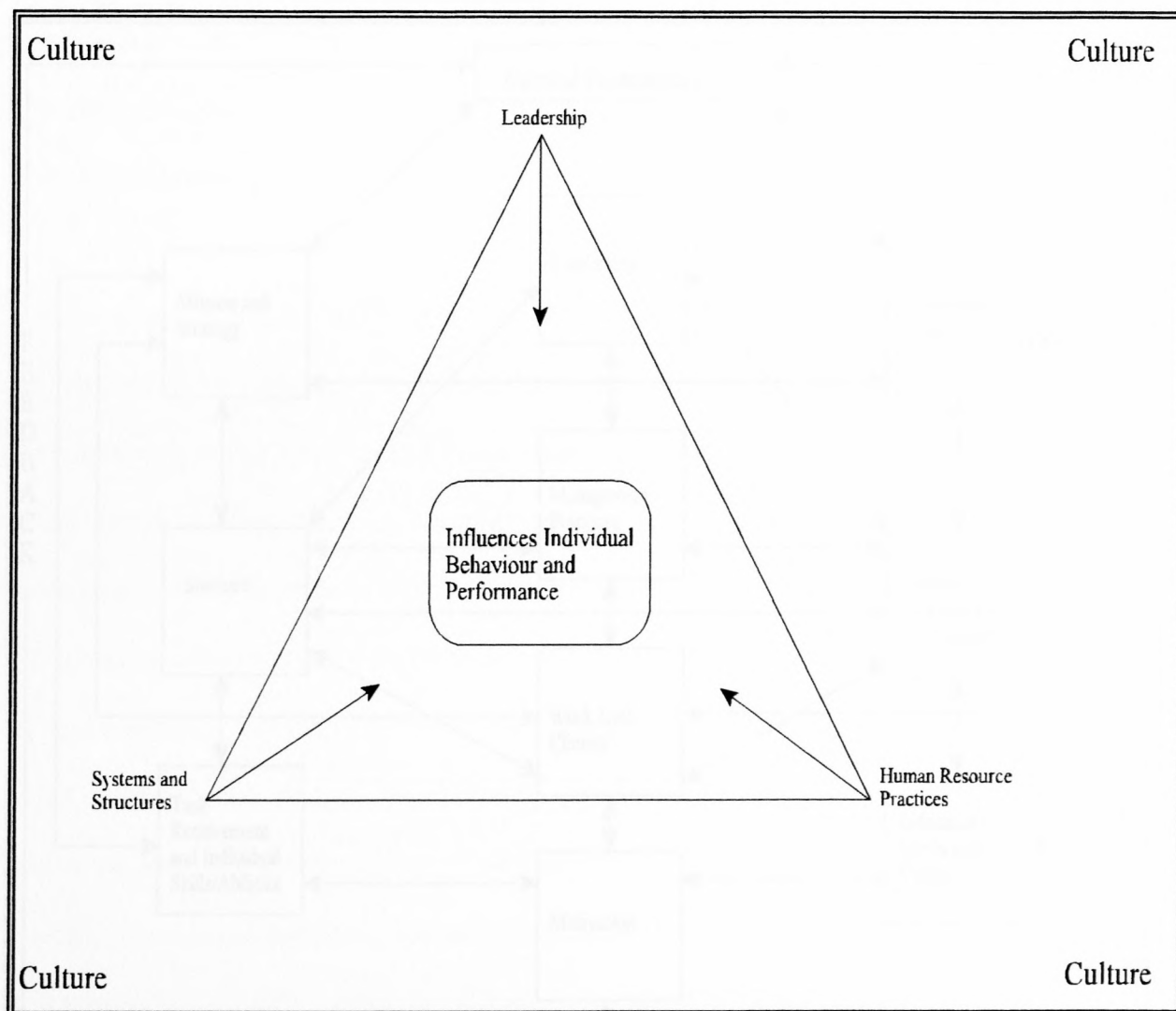
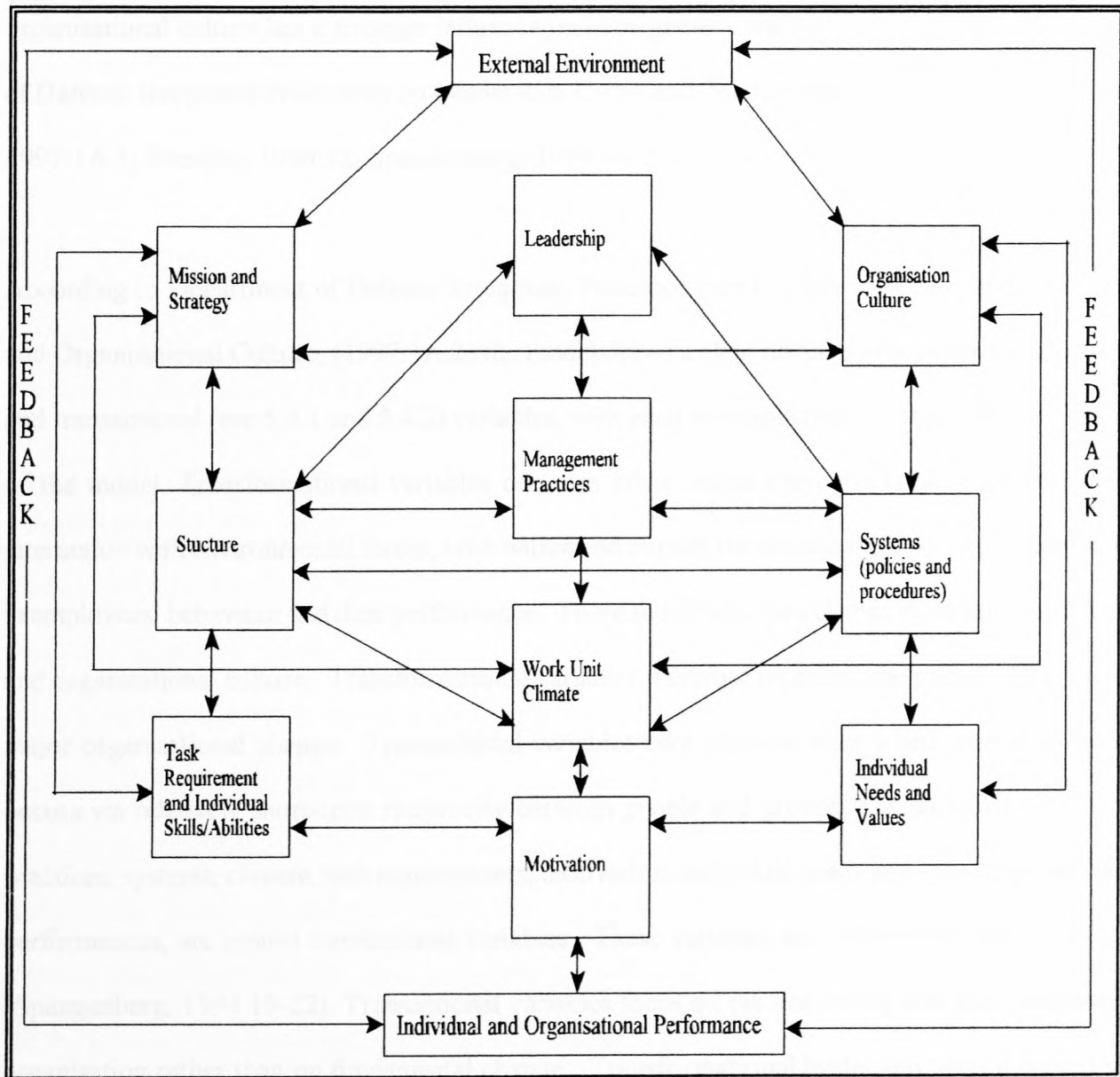




FIGURE 7.3: INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

SOURCE: SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE INTEGRATED  
PHILOSOPHY (1997:1A.1)



leadership and organisational culture play a more crucial role in influencing organisational change than the variables of structure, management practices and systems. The model does not prescribe where change in the organisation should start. It does, however, indicate the relative importance of each factor in respect of each other in effecting change. Thus, the higher the position of a factor in the hierarchical outlay of the model, the greater its importance in effecting organisational change. For example, organisational culture has a stronger influence on management practices and motivation (Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:1A.1; Eberlein, 1990:32; Spangenberg, 1994:20-21).

According to Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, (1997:1A.2) the model draws a clear distinction between transformational and transactional (see 5.4.1 and 5.4.2) variables, with each set respectively in the upper and lower half of the model. Transformational variables occur in areas where alteration is likely to be caused by interaction with environmental forces, both within and outside the organisation. It may require a change in employees' behaviour and their performance. There should also be a change in the mission, leadership and organisational culture. Transformational variables therefore represent the primary levers to effect major organisational change. Transactional variables take place in areas where alteration primarily occurs via relatively short-term reciprocity between people and groups. The structure, management practices, systems, climate, task requirements, motivation, individual needs and values, as well as work performances, are typical transactional variables. These variables are in the lower half of the model (Spangenberg, 1994:19-22). Transactional variables focus on the fine tuning and improvement of the organisation rather than on fundamental change. Transformational leadership plays a crucial role in transforming organisations that amalgamated to form a new organisation. Transactional leadership is effective when the new organisation undertakes short term projects to increase production. The South

African National Defence Force needs both transformational and transactional leaders to achieve increased productivity (Conger and Kanungo, 1998:13-15; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:450; Reggio et al. 2002:106-107).

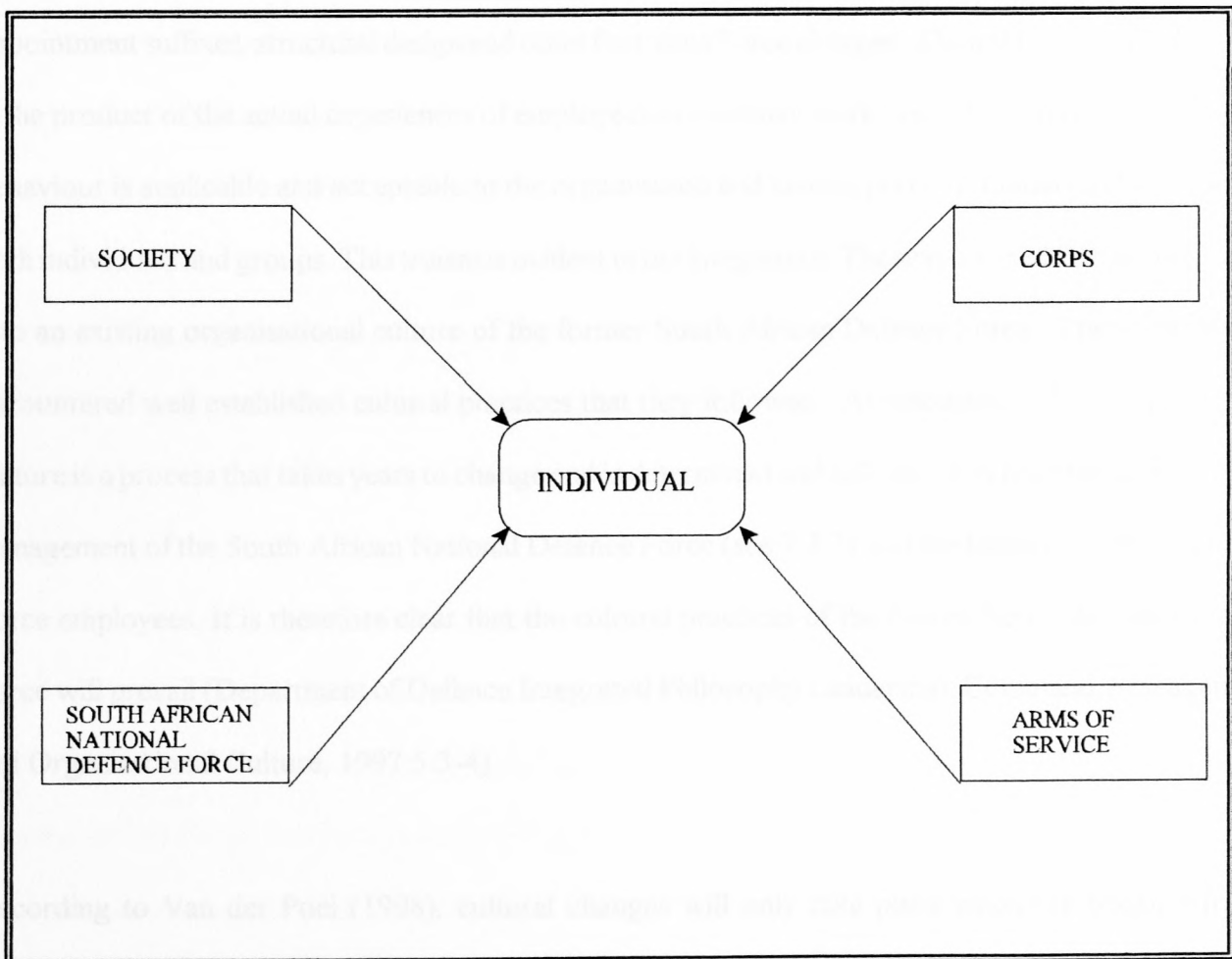
The human resource policies and practices are based on the broad philosophy of the South African National Defence Force. They are directed at the efficiency of the employees, the fair treatment and equity to the workforce and the effectiveness of the organisation as a whole. The human resource policies and workforce are managed within a hierarchy of regulations and policies. These include: the Public Service Act, the Military Disciplinary Code, the General Regulations, the Public Service Staff Code, the Public Service Regulations and South African National Defence Force Orders (Defence Review, 1997:9; South African National Defence Force Personnel Code/A/II; South African National Defence Force Orders/C PERS/1/98).

According to Defence Review, (1997:35-36) the military culture is embedded in its structures, systems, policies and practices that influence the behaviour and performance of employees (see 5.3.1; Figures 5.1 and 7.2). Therefore, the workforce is indoctrinated in the military culture. The employees are culturally influenced by a number of layers (see Figure 7.4). The member's functional (occupational) discipline has its own traditions, practised by the group. These traditions are instilled in the employees during training and orientation. The military community in which the employees live invigorates the military lifestyle and military discipline in them. The cultural behaviour takes place within the context of the national cultural environment, as illustrated in Figure 7.4 (Bester, 1999). The employees are influenced by their peers, colleagues and superiors, who are constituent members of their functional discipline. They are also influenced by the traditions of their arm of service, the broader South African National Defence Force and the national culture practised within South Africa. Therefore, with time, the pressure



FIGURE 7.4: CULTURE INFLUENCES INDIVIDUALS

SOURCE: DEFENCE REVIEW (1997:36)



and influence exerted via the cultural avenues on employees accustom them to the military traditions and culture. Thus, organisational culture impacts on the behaviour of the workforce and influences their performance, which enhances productivity (Thompson and Strickland, 2003:420-421).

According to Van der Poel (1998), the cultural practices of the South African National Defence Force is a replica of the former South African Defence Force, with the exception of: the rank insignia, the appointment suffixes, structural design and other Part-time Force changes. The military-oriented culture is the product of the actual experiences of employees in everyday work life. The norms prescribe what behaviour is applicable and acceptable to the organisation and among peers. It influences behaviour of both individuals and groups. This truism is evident in the integration. The seven armed Forces integrated into an existing organisational culture of the former South African Defence Force. These employees encountered well established cultural practices that they followed. As discussed in 5.3 organisational culture is a process that takes years to change and is determined and influenced by top management. The management of the South African National Defence Force (see 7.3.3) is in the hands of white Statutory Force employees. It is therefore clear that the cultural practices of the former South African Defence Force will prevail (Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:5.3-4).

According to Van der Poel (1998), cultural changes will only take place when the South African National Defence Force is managed by a diverse management corps. To institutionalise a new organisational culture for the South African National Defence Force, all actions should be underpinned by adherence to a sound military ethic (including loyalty, duty, service and integrity). There should be adherence to a shared military value system, civil control and direction of military affairs, respect for human dignity and democracy. The new organisational culture should include the values and norms of

the diverse workforce. It should be well articulated and communicated to all employees. Cultural changes should make provision that gender equity is an integral part of promotion practices because it allows for the optimal utilisation of women's potential. It should also ensure that inter-cultural learning is included in the training curriculum because it allows employees to be more tolerant towards other race groups. The South African National Defence Force should promote inter-cultural socialisation amongst officers and non-commissioned officers. It allows supervisors to deal with misconceptions and to encourage subordinates to have trust and confidence in management. It allows officers and non-commissioned officers to share their knowledge and discuss common work-related challenges. Management should ensure that mentorship be part of an employee's developmental programme. It allows mentors to coach and impart their knowledge to protégés. It also allows older employees to reinforce the dominant military values, traditions and norms in new and younger employees (Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:5.3-4).

It could be deducted that organisational culture: (1) creates an environment that is conducive for human resource management to take place; (2) creates conditions for increased performance and productivity to be achieved; (3) creates an environment in which systems, structures and practices can influence employees' behaviour and performance; (4) creates an environment in which supervisors can develop, motivate and optimally utilise subordinates.

The next section discusses how human resource management influences employees' performance and productivity.



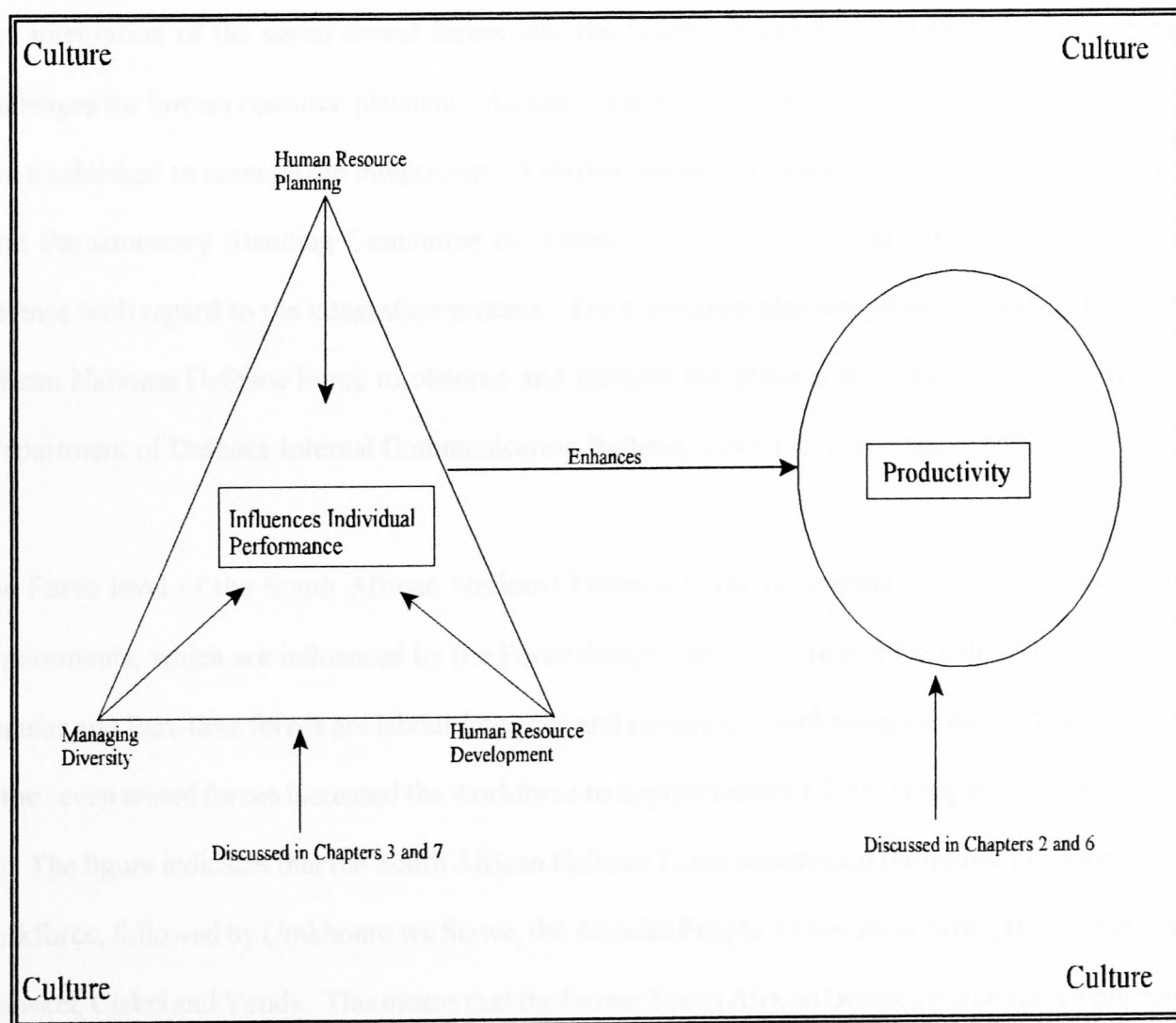
### 7.3 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

The previous section argued that organisational culture is the most crucial variable that creates an environment in which human resource management and motivation can take place. It creates conditions that allow management to institute systems, structures, policies and practices that influence employees' behaviour and performance. This section focuses on the effective management of people: (1) to effectively develop employees' potential; (2) to appoint the right individual to the most appropriate position (right job); (3) to optimally utilise people so that they can increase their performance and productivity. It focuses on human resource planning, human resource development and managing diversity. The interdependence and interaction between these activities allow the individual to increase his or her performance, which enhances productivity (see Figure 7.5).

The South African National Defence Force's human resources should be effectively managed and motivated (discussed in Chapters 3 and 4) to increase productivity. The challenges it faces are the attraction, retention, motivation and development of its workforce. Prior to the integration in 1994, the workforce of the South African Defence Force was heterogenous, educated and operated with clear objectives in a relatively stable environment. They experienced constant growth (promotion), despite a high labour turnover, and concentrated on selecting, training and developing the lower echelon of the workforce for immediate and short-term employment in combat and support situations. These circumstances have changed. The current workforce is more diverse and a substantial number of employees have been disadvantaged and deprived of training and development, (see Figure 6.2) presenting management with more challenges than before (Eberlein, 1992:33; South African National Defence Force Personnel Code/B/II/II/1-3).

**FIGURE 7.5: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT INFLUENCES INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE AND PRODUCTIVITY**

**SOURCE :** Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005



The subsections which follow discuss three core functions of management, namely human resource planning, human resource development and managing diversity. The next subsection deals with human resource planning.

### **7.3.1 Human Resource Planning**

The integration of the seven armed forces into the South African National Defence Force created challenges for human resource planning. An Integration Committee consisting of the arms of service was established to manage the integration. A Parliamentary Integration Oversight Committee of the Joint Parliamentary Standing Committee for Defence was regularly briefed by the Department of Defence with regard to the integration process. The committee also visited various units of the South African National Defence Force to observe and monitor the process and progress of the integration (Department of Defence Internal Communication Bulletin, 1995:1-2; Zietsman, 1999).

The Force level of the South African National Defence Force is determined by its human resource requirements, which are influenced by the Force design, the structure and the military missions. The Regular and Part-time forces are labour intensive and require low technological skills. The integration of the seven armed forces increased the workforce to approximately 122 000 people, depicted in Figure 7.6. The figure indicates that the South African Defence Force contributed the largest proportion to the workforce, followed by Umkhonto we Sizwe, the Azanian People's Liberation Army, Bophuthatswana, Transkei, Ciskei and Venda. This means that the former South African Defence Force plays a prominent role in managing the South African National Defence Force toward increased productivity (Defence Review, 1997:18; Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:5; Department of Defence Internal Communication Bulletin, 1995:1-2).



## FIGURE 7.6: INTEGRATED ARMED FORCES

SOURCE: DEPARTMENT OF DEFENCE INTERNAL COMMUNICATION  
BULLETIN (1995:1-2)

<b>FORCE</b>	<b>STRENGTH</b>
South African Defence Force	88 000
Transkei	2 000
Bophuthatswana	3 000
Venda	1 000
Ciskei	1 000
Umkhonto we Sizwe	21 000
Azanian People's Liberation Army	6 000
<b>Total</b>	<b>122 000</b>

The envisaged force strength of the South African National Defence Force is illustrated in Figure 7.11. The difference between the present (122 000) and envisaged (70 700) workforce is a supernumerary of 41 300. This situation made human resource planning difficult: (1) it meant that 41 300 employees had to be rationalised; (2) 27 000 Non-Statutory Force employees had to be incorporated into the different armed forces and various functional disciplines; (3) 27 000 Non-Statutory Force employees had to be trained, developed, mentored and motivated before they could meaningfully contribute towards productivity; (4) it also made succession planning impossible because 41 300 employees had to be rationalised; (5) it further constrained the defence budget; (6) it further drained the use of facilities and physical resources; (7) it further stretched the use of obsolete armament and technology (Defence Review, 1997:25; Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:6).

The external and internal factors necessitated the implementation of an effective human resource planning strategy, which enabled the South African National Defence Force to expand or decrease its force levels at short notice according to changing operational needs dictated by potential threats, political factors and government policies. The Flexible Regular Force Service System comprising of a Short-term, Medium-term and Long-term Service System was introduced as a solution to the above problem. The system allowed flexibility of human resource utilisation. It facilitated human resource planning and human resource development because of fixed terms of service. The system managed labour turnover because the outflux of personnel is preplanned and controlled (Defence Review, 1997:25; Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:6).

According to Van der Poel (1998), the Short-term Service allows for a maximum period of six years. It has a high turnover to maintain youthfulness and offers only temporary career opportunities. The post structure primarily makes provision for combat services and training focuses primarily on combat training skills. This system serves as a source of supply for the Medium-term Service that seeks to procure human resources for the middle management echelon. The appointments in the Medium-term Service ranges from a minimum of three years to a maximum of ten years. It also facilitates upward mobility for permanent appointment in the Long-term Service. The Long-term Service System is for the top echelon and lasts until retirement age (Defence Review, 1997:22-24).

The Part-time Force consists of conventional and territorial units. It is a voluntary system and takes place by means of a service contract between the South African National Defence Force and the individual. The service contract determines the availability of service for a specified period. The Part-time Force comprises members of the Reserves who have completed previous military commitments and now serve in a voluntary capacity (Defence Review, 1997:22-24; van der Poel, 1998).

Human resource planning enables the South African National Defence Force to meet its short, medium and long term human resource requirements. The South African National Defence Force uses psychometric, personality and intelligence selection tests to determine the suitability of candidates for employment and appointment. It requires employees who are adventurous and take calculated dangerous risks and can make critical decisions to solve problems. These individuals should be educated and knowledgeable of current affairs (political, social and economic) and be able to operate in extremely harsh conditions and cope with life-threatening events. They should be qualified to manage the South African National Defence Force's resources effectively. The combat and support disciplines of the arms of service require employees with various personalities, abilities and competencies (aviation fighter, bomber and tanker, artillery, armour and infantry) (Hilton and Dolgin, 1991:140-141; van der Poel, 1998).

According to Zietsman (1999), human resource selection is crucial for the appointment, development and utilisation of the diverse workforce. Without it management cannot capitalise on employees' abilities, competencies, skills and optimally utilise them. Human resource selection ensures that the most qualified employees are appointed to appropriate positions, where they can best serve the organisation (Eberlein, 1992:36-37).

Human resource selection provides management with tests to select and appoint the best qualified candidates. These candidates should be militarily developed before they can be optimally utilised. The next subsection focuses on human resource development.



### 7.3.2 Human Resource Development

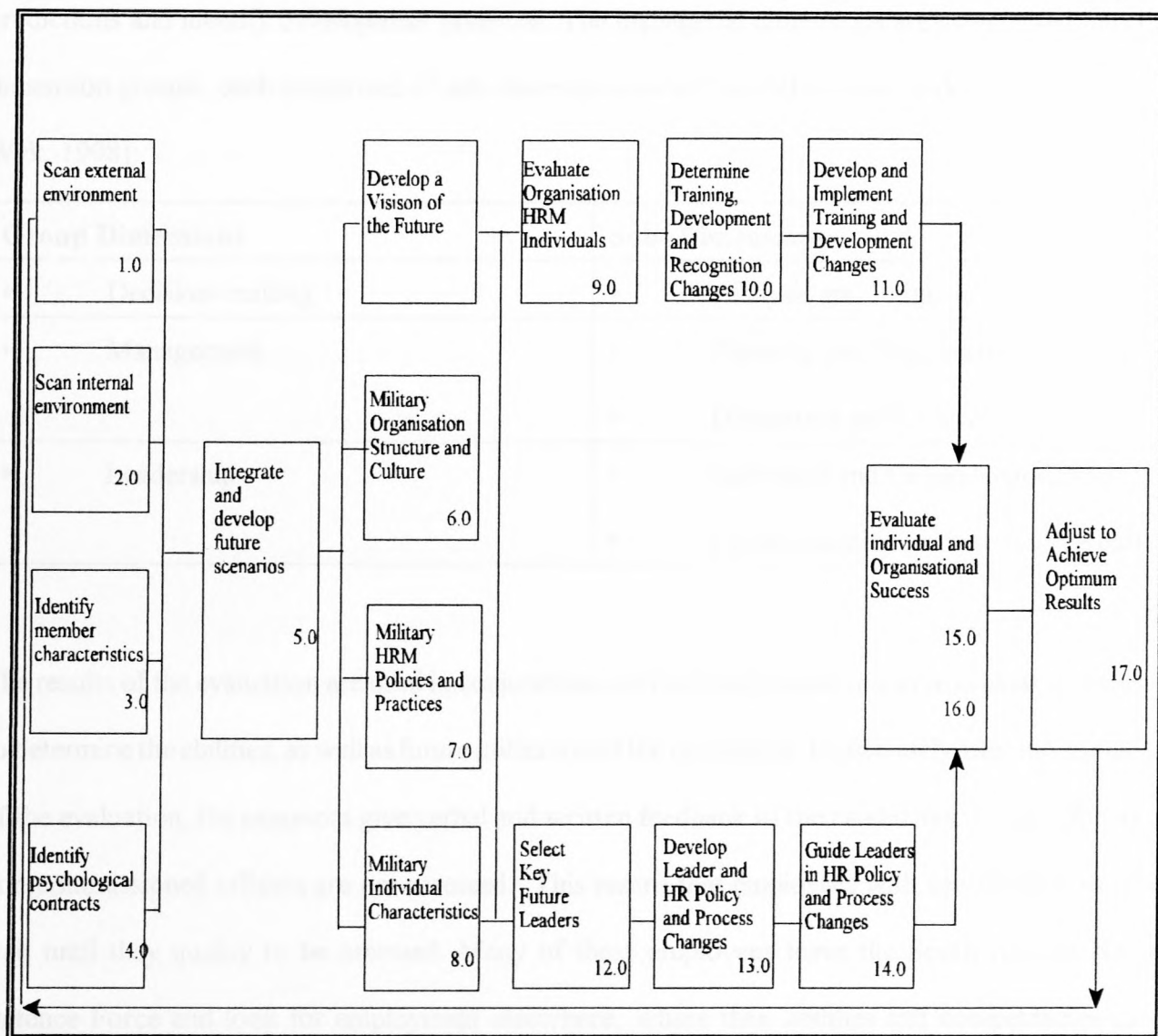
The previous subsection focused on how human resource planning enables the South African National Defence Force to adjust its human resources to meet its national military obligations, as well as peace keeping missions on the continent. It also discussed how human resources planning provides for the selection of the most competent candidates to fill human resource requirements. This section discusses how the workforce can be developed to achieve organisational and individual goals. Figure 7.7 illustrates the steps that are needed to manage human resource development. The figure is a representation of a system approach. Each of the blocks can be analysed into greater detail as the plan unfolds. Blocks 10.0, 11.0, 12.0, 13.0 and 14.0 of Figure 7.7 are vital for the empowering and accommodation of the Non-Statutory Force employees. Blocks 10.0, 11.0, 12.0, 13.0 and 14.0 are part of the human resource development plan. These phases should be activated in order to accommodate the Non-Statutory Force. The final arrow at block 17.0 indicates the start of the feedback (see 2.4 and 4.4) and evaluation loop, requiring the next action to be taken at block 1.0 (Eberlein, 1990:38-42; Zietzman, 1999).

The focus of human resource development is the development of the diverse workforce of the South African National Defence Force. It intends to address social imbalances, ensuring representation at all management levels, low performance and productivity levels of employees, and fast-tracking functional empowerment of Non-Statutory Force employees. Human resource development is the responsibility of leaders and managers because they manage the organisation's resources (van der Poel, 1998; van Onselen, 1999).

The South African National Defence Force uses assessment centres to assess senior officers and warrant

FIGURE 7.7: HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT PLAN

SOURCE: EBERLEIN (1990:36)



officers for appointment to senior and top management positions. Assessment centres are currently fragmented within the South African National Defence Force, with the arms of services operating independently. Assessment centres are utilised as a dual role of selection and development. They determine leadership and management competencies at the next higher level. They make certain predictions and identify development potential. The managerial dimensions are categorised into three dimension groups, each comprised of sub-dimensions as set out below (van Wyk, 1997:2.1; 5-1; van Wyk, 1998):

Group Dimensions	Sub- Dimensions
▶ Decision-making	▶ Analysis and Judgement
▶ Management	▶ Planning and Organisation
	▶ Delegation and Control
▶ Leadership	▶ Individual and Group Negotiation
	▶ Communication (written and verbal)

The results of the evaluation are used in conjunction with existing human resource evaluation measures to determine the abilities, as well as future utilisation of the candidates. Immediately after the completion of the evaluation, the assessors give verbal and written feedback to the candidates. Junior officers and non-commissioned officers are not assessed. This means that employees with special abilities should wait until they qualify to be assessed. Many of these employees leave the South African National Defence Force and look for employment elsewhere, where their abilities and competencies can be developed and utilised. However, there is a need for employees with special abilities to be trained and developed to ensure a pool of qualified employees to fill the human resource requirements (Cilliers, 1998:68; van Wyk, 1997:2.1-3.3; van Wyk, 1998).



Training is an integral part of development, therefore the next subsections will focus on training and its influence on performance.

### **7.3.2.1 Training and Development**

This subsection discusses training as a means of increasing employees' performance and enhancing productivity. The transformation of the South African National Defence Force necessitated an overhaul of the training function. This expansion included education and development, thus catering for the total development of the workforce. The inclusion of civilian employees from the Department of Defence in the education, training and development process is a major departure from past practices (White Paper on Defence, 1997:3.15; de Vries, 1998).

Training is an integral part of the South African National Defence Force, particularly as part of the preparation of forces for war. Therefore, training should be competency based to improve the individual's performance and not as a disciplinary tool. It should recognise the dignity of the individual and should be conducted in an environment that is conducive to learning. It should be based on clearly identified training needs and conform to international standards. Training and development is a systematic and planned process to change the knowledge, competencies and behaviour of the workforce, so that they can achieve organisational goals and objectives. The appropriate work environment and conditions should be established, so that a learning culture can be introduced (White Paper on Defence, 1997:3.15; de Vries, 1998).

The South African National Defence Force provides ample opportunity for the development of its workforce. It provides a professional military education and training and development system for

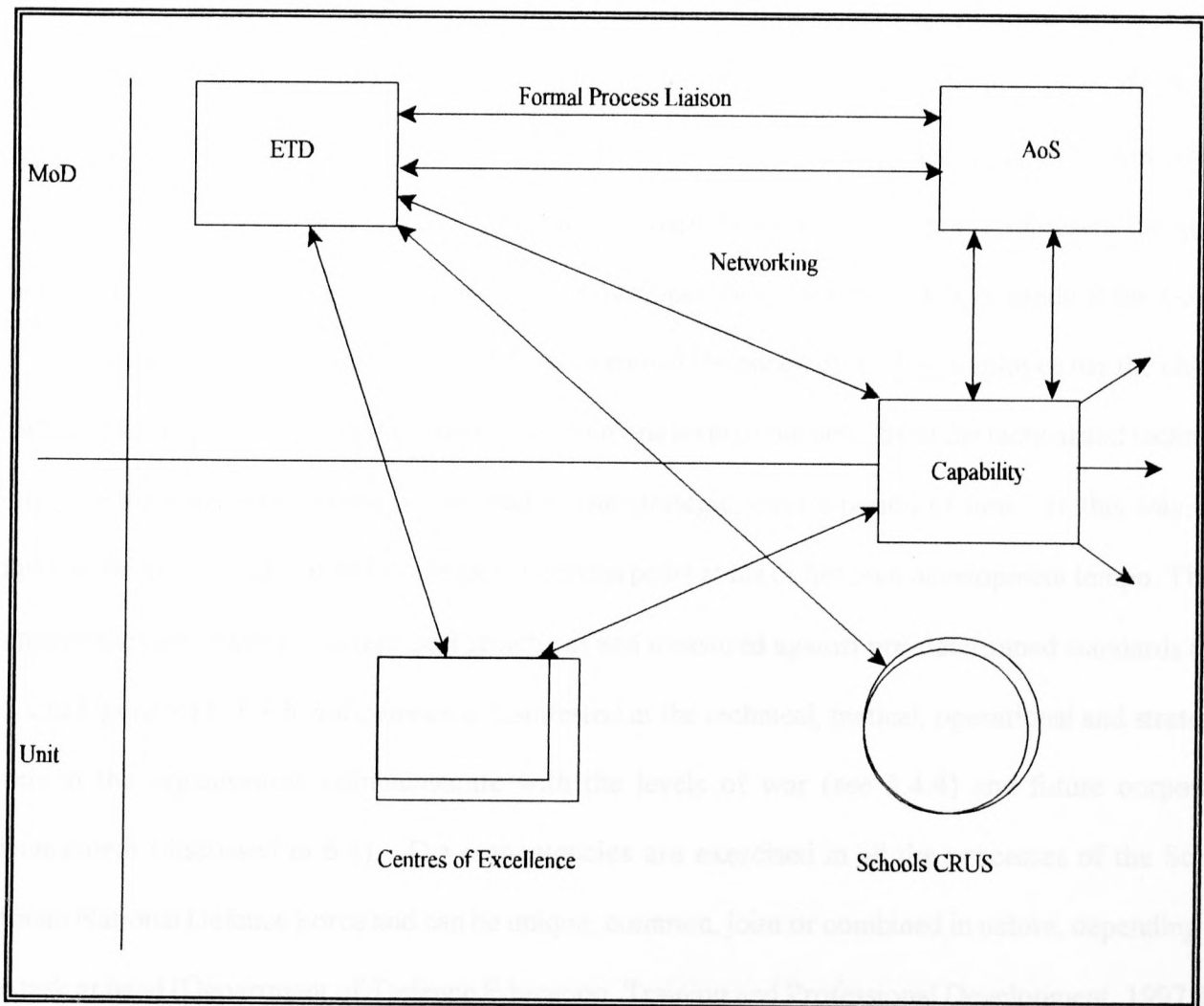
officers, warrant officers, non-commissioned officers, ratings, civilians and part-time component. It provides tertiary education at the Military Academy, young officers' training, command and staff training, battle simulation, military research and training of civilians members at the South African National Defence Force's colleges and training schools. It provides support training that includes human resources, administration, technical support, diving, catering, military intelligence, languages, sport and physical training, as well as recreational training. It creates a management information system for joint training, it assist with the accreditation of military qualifications at the South African Qualifications Authority and the National Qualifications Framework. It also provides equal opportunities training, civic education, leadership, command and management practices, professional skills, philosophies and principles, and peace and support operations training (Cilliers, 1998:49-51; Department of Defence Education, Training and Professional development, 1997:77; de Vries, 1998).

### **7.3.2.2 Training Increases Performance**

Figure 7.8, the capability model, illustrates the various military institutions that are involved in training and developing the abilities and competencies of the workforce. The employee is the centre of focus. The development of the person's capabilities and competencies is the focal point. The arms of service compile a post profile and required competencies of the incumbent, and submit them to the department of training and development who designs training programmes to meet the requirements of the arms of service. They inform the relevant training institutions (centres of excellence or schools) and the arms of service of the training curriculum and may in certain instances provide the instructors to do the training. The success of developing employees' competencies depends on the networking between the Department of Training and Development, the arms of service and the training institutions. The system differs from the former training system in that it not only focuses on satisfying the training needs of the

FIGURE 7.8: CAPABILITY MODEL

SOURCE: SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE EDUCATION,  
TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (1997:95)



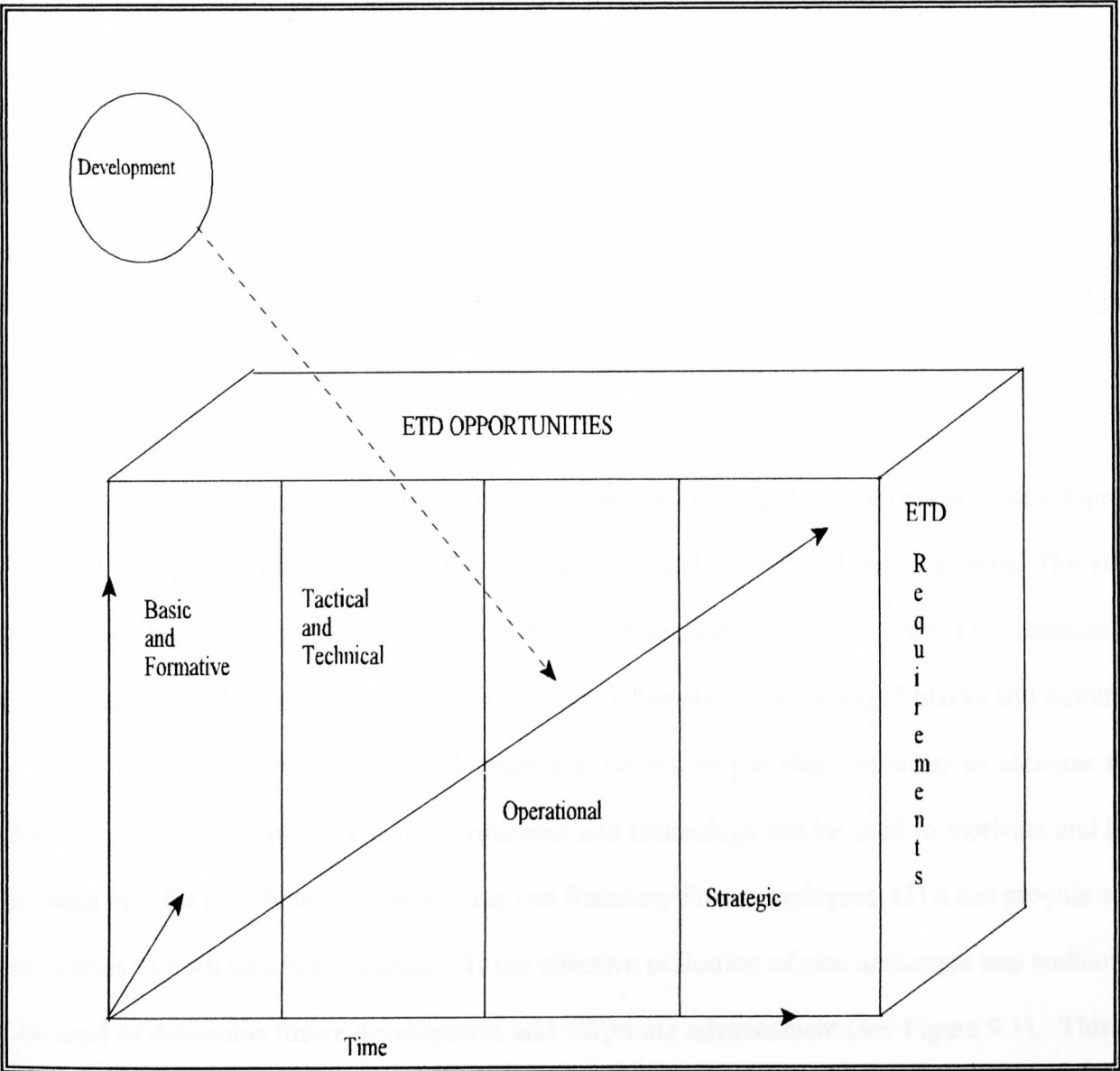


arms of service, but also focuses on training the competencies and abilities of employees. This means integration of training from junior to senior level. For example, a member of the army can now attend specialised military courses at the navy. The duplication of training per arms of service is stopped and resources can effectively be utilised elsewhere (Department of Defence Education, Training and Professional Development, 1997:94-95; de Vries, 1998).

The South African National Defence Force has designed the Competency Achievement Model (Figure 7.9) to ensure the achievement of its training and development goals. The individual enters the South Africa National Defence Force at the beginning of the y-axis of the model where time, for the employee, is zero. The model has an additional level, named the basic level. This attempts to represent the initial orientation necessary, independent of prior attained competencies (at what notch, or grade of the x-axis) with which the person entered the South African National Defence Force. The employee has the choice of achieving competence along the growth line from one level to the next, from the tactical and technical to the operational, and from the operational to the strategic, over a period of time. In this way, the employee becomes qualified and available for certain posts at his or her own development tempo. These competencies are linked to current post structures and measured against pre-determined standards (see 9.2 and Figure 9.1). Such competence is manifested at the technical, tactical, operational and strategic levels in the organisation, commensurate with the levels of war (see 5.4.4) and future corporate advancement (discussed in 6.4). The competencies are exercised in all the processes of the South African National Defence Force and can be unique, common, joint or combined in nature, depending on the task at hand (Department of Defence Education, Training and Professional Development, 1997:19, 77-78, 94-96; de Vries, 1998).

FIGURE 7.9: COMPETENCE ACHIEVEMENT MODEL

SOURCE: SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE EDUCATION,  
TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (1997:95)



The model provides flexibility that allows for the creation of individualised education, training and development opportunities. The applicable National Qualification Framework Educational level (1-8) is coupled to the posts at the levels of war (technical, tactical, operational and strategic levels). This means that tertiary education forms an integral part of the individual's development. Education and training are accredited and military skills are recognised as national competencies. Figures 7.8 and 7.9 provide opportunities that are accessible to the workforce, to improve their competence and professionalism for mission readiness within an environment conducive to progressive learning. Training and development of the workforce is crucial to educate and develop the diverse workforce, particularly the disadvantaged employees. Through training, employees acquire competencies and skills, that increase their performance and enhance productivity (Department of Defence Education, Training and Professional Development, 1997:19, 77-78, 94-96; de Vries, 1998).

According to De Vries (1998), training and development are an integral part of the career development and hierarchical advancement of the workforce of the South African National Defence Force. Therefore, the new technology (arms procurement) (see 6.4) should be used as a mechanism: (1) to challenge and benefit the entire workforce; (2) since affirmative action benefits disadvantaged blacks and nothing is done to motivate disgruntle Asians, coloureds and whites to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity. The new armament and technology can be used to motivate and level the playing field for both Non-Statutory Force and Statutory Force employees; (3) it can provide equal opportunities to both whites and blacks; (4) the effective utilisation of new armament and technology can be used to determine future development and corporate advancement (see Figure 9.1). This will motivate employees to determine and be responsible for their career development and stimulate them to increase their performance and productivity. Figure 7.8, the Capability Model, and Figure 7.9, the Competence Achievement Model, are tools designed to train and develop the diverse workforce. It



demonstrates management's commitment to train employees and develop leaders by making the organisation's resources available to them. Inter-cultural learning should become part of the training curriculum, because it will help employees to understand the cultural differences that make them unique. This will change the misconceptions of employees. It will also help employees to be more tolerant towards each other (Department of Defence Education, Training and Professional Development, 1997:19, 77-78, 94-96).

The employees can only be utilised to accomplish organisational goals and objectives when they are trained and developed. The next subsection deals with managing a diverse workforce.

### **7.3.3 Managing Diversity**

This section focuses on the composition of the diverse workforce of the South African National Defence Force and the contribution that the effective staffing of the new organisational structures will have on productivity.

Figure 7.10 illustrates the workforce of the South African National Defence Force as at February 1997: Asians 958 (0.91%), Coloureds 11 926 (11.30%), Whites 32 016 (30.34%) and Africans 60 635 (57.45%). Figure 7.11 illustrates the proposed force level anticipated after the transformation: Asians 530 (0.75%), Coloureds 7 225 (10.22%), Whites 17 217 (24.35%) and Africans 45 728 (64.68%). A comparison of Figures 7.10 and 7.11 indicates that all race groups exceeded their proposed strengths and that employees would have to be rationalised in order to comply with their quotas. The figures reflect that Africans are in the majority and dominate the other race groups. However, the figures do not indicate the rank distribution per race group. Figure 7.11A illustrates that whites still control (see

FIGURE 7.10: FORCE COMPOSITION DURING INTEGRATION

SOURCE: DEFENCE REVIEW (1997:25)

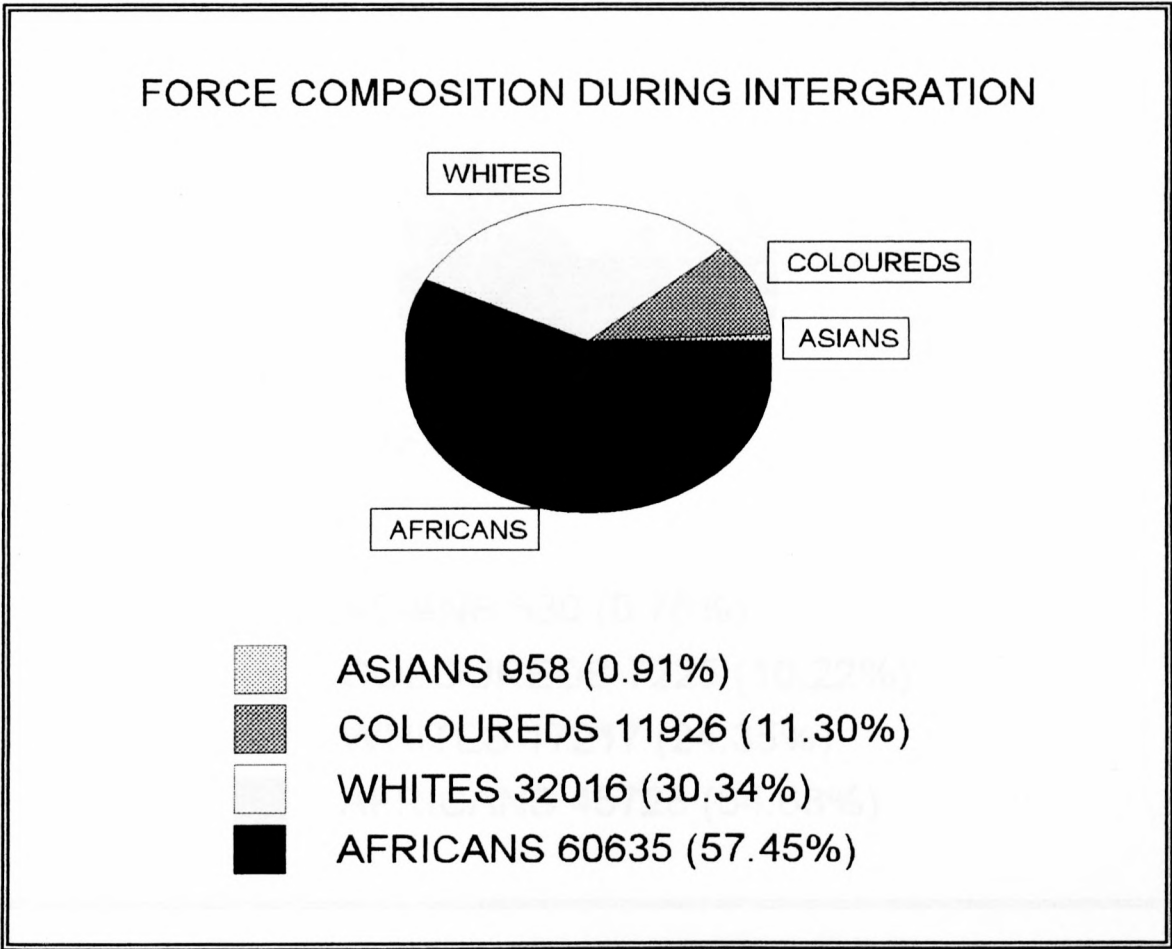


FIGURE 7.11: ENVISAGED FORCE COMPOSITION AFTER INTEGRATION

SOURCE: DEFENCE REVIEW (1997:25)

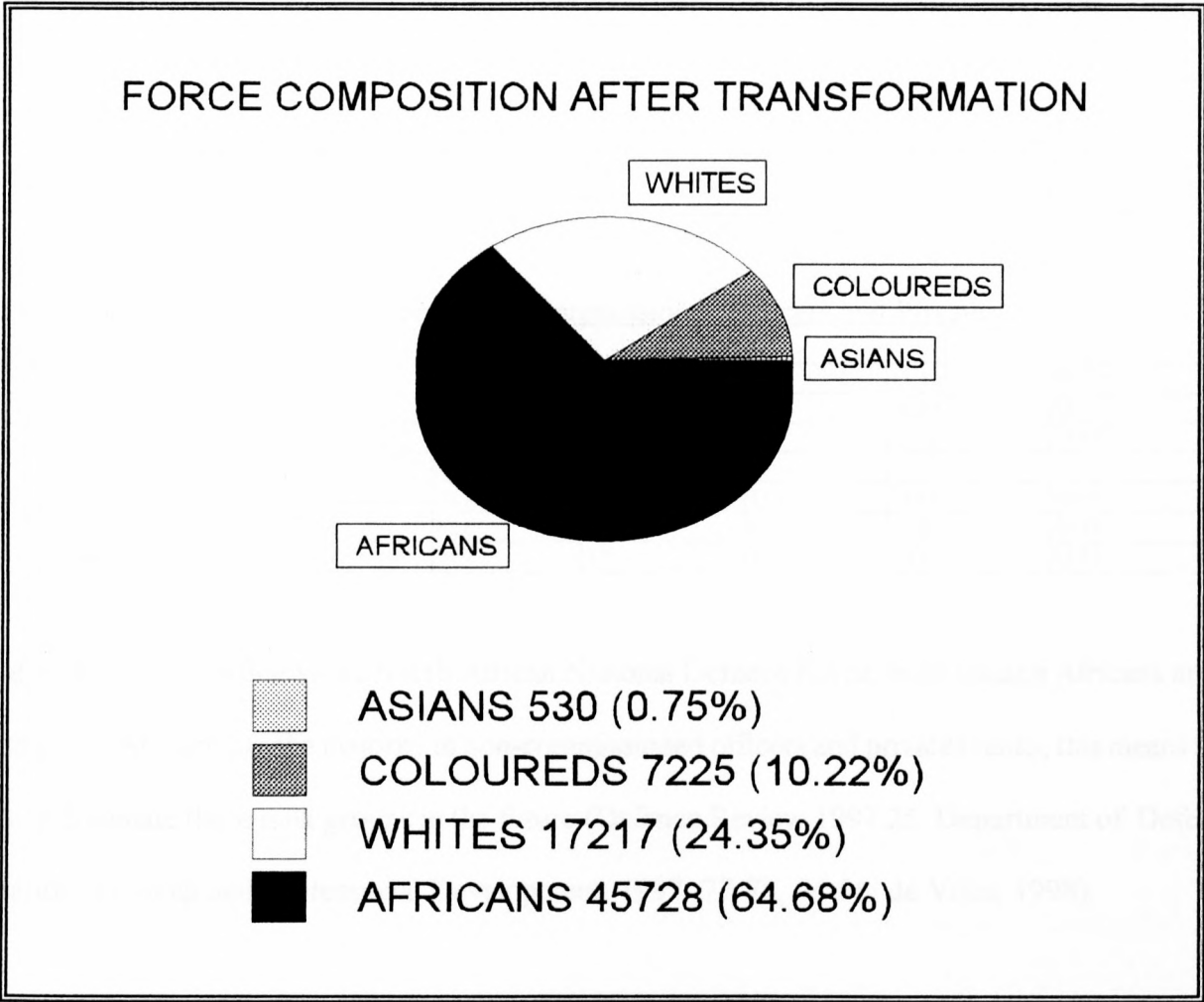




FIGURE 7.11A: FORCE COMPOSITION FOR APRIL 2002

SOURCE: SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE ORDER/ C PERS 1/02.4

Rank Distribution for Officers

Scr No	Rank	% Asians	% Africans	% Coloureds	% Whites	% Women	% Men
	a	b	c	d	e	f	g
1	Major General	5	45	0	50	5	95
2	Brigadier General	0.6	33.5	1.9	64	5.22	94.88
3	Colonel	0.6	14.5	1.7	83.2	11.22	88.78
4	Lieutenant Colonel	0.6	22.2	3.8	73.4	14.7	85.3
5	Major	1.2	29.5	6.7	62.6	23.62	73.38
6	Captain	0.8	37.8	6.6	54.7	34.44	65.56
7	Lieutenant	1.4	46.9	12.3	39.4	29.67	70.33
8	2 <sup>nd</sup> Lieutenant	3.2	34.6	9.2	53	33.33	66.67
9	Chaplains	1.6	55.7	7.4	35.2	6.56	93.44

Rank Distribution for Warrant Officers, Non-Commissioned Officers and Privates

10	W01	1.7	8.7	9.5	80.1	13.23	86.77
11	W02	3.4	16.6	14.8	65.2	16.29	83.71
12	Staff Sergeant	3.1	27.4	17.7	51.7	16.32	83.68
13	Sergeant	2.3	49	16.6	32	19.36	80.64
14	Corporal	1.6	72.7	14.2	11.5	13.84	86.16
15	Lance Corporal	1.6	82.6	9.5	6.3	13.79	86.21
16	Private	0.3	91.2	5.7	2.8	6.41	93.59

rank distribution for officers) the South African National Defence Force, even though Africans are in the majority. Africans are the majority in non-commissioned officers and privates ranks, this means that they will dominate these rank groups in the future (Defence Review 1997:25; Department of Defence Education, Training and Professional Development, 1997: 77-78, 94-96; de Vries, 1998).

A comparison between Figures 6.4A and 7.11A indicates that the staffing process of the Department of Defence did not promote the blacks in sufficient numbers in higher ranks (staff sergeant to warrant officer class 1 and captain to major general) in order to bring about representivity. Blacks are the majority in the lower ranks (private to sergeant and lieutenant), while whites are the majority in the higher ranks (captain to major general and staff sergeant to warrant officer class 1). The figures also

indicate that the levels of women in different ranks are not in accordance with the prescribed policy ratios. It is obvious that the staffing process was done without taking into consideration the policy on affirmative action (South African National Defence Force Order/ C PERS 1/02.4; Leukes, 2002).

According to Van Onselen (1999), the staffing of the new organisation structures is based on scientific theory (see Figure 7.3). The post content is based on job analysis and post profile, which prescribe the required competencies and skills the incumbent needs in order to effectively execute the functions of the relevant post. The staffing procedure is as follows: the South African National Defence Force advertises a post per circular of the arms of service and units. The applicants apply via the normal channels of command. The staffing is done by the staffing boards of the arms of service. The staffing process is perceived to benefit the Statutory Force employees, because they have the experience, qualification and competencies. In many instances, they are or have been the incumbents of those posts. The majority of the Non-Statutory Force employees still need to complete their prescribed military courses. Non-Statutory Force employees generally have difficulty competing with Statutory Force employees who have twenty or thirty years of experience. Therefore, the advertisement of posts is perceived as a means of disqualifying Non-Statutory Force employees (Zietsman, 1999).

The absence of a central management body to coordinate and monitor the staffing processes and progress makes it difficult to determine whether the South African National Defence Force will achieve its affirmative action goals as illustrated by Figures 6.4A and 7.11A. The failure of such a mechanism creates the impression that the status quo is being maintained. The whites will continue to manage the South African National Defence Force until the disadvantaged employees are qualified to assume command and control. Effective human resource management, training, development and motivation of the diverse workforce, particularly the Non-Statutory Force employees, is the only means that will

ensure a motivated, qualified and professional workforce that can increase their performance and enhance productivity (van Onselen, 1999; Zietsman, 1999).

According to Van der Poel (1998), managers strive to achieve a “perfect match” by blending the employees’ competencies and skills with the job requirements. They endeavour to appoint the most competent employees to the most appropriate positions. Management optimally utilises the Statutory Force employees because they are qualified and professional, while under utilising Non-Statutory Force employees. Mentorship is implemented to accommodate the empowerment and development of Non-statutory Force employees. The South African National Defence Force regularly transfers its employees and assigns them to different missions. Job enrichment and job rotation enrich and increase employees’ experiences and prepare them for senior management appointment (Department of Defence Education, Training and Professional Development, 1997:94-96).

The management process of the South African National Defence Force is based on two management theories: participative management and decentralisation. Employees’ involvement in participative management takes place in a descending order. The bureaucratic system of the South African National Defence Force only allows for active participation of senior and top management. The lower levels in the hierarchy experience limited participation, depending on the rank and hierarchical position of the employees. Employees participate in human resource management. They have a career interview with their immediate superior, where they discuss the employee’s career prospects, in conjunction with the needs, goals and objectives of the organisation. The higher hierarchical levels (Type Formation, Arms of Service and Chief of Staff Personnel) have input in the management processes because they transfer, appointment and promote employees (South African National Defence Force Orders/C PERS/1/98; GS1/59/96).



The second theory deals with decentralisation. Management delegates power to the lowest hierarchical level to enable those units to perform their prescribed roles and functions. Incumbents are vested with hierarchical power to enable them to perform their delegated duties and responsibilities. Employee forums and union representation are appropriate systems that afford employees opportunities to express their satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The civilian employees have access to unions of their choice. There is regular interaction between the unions and the human resource departments on the macro and micro organisational levels. Employee forums are used to address the frustration and discontent of uniformed employees, because according to the *Labour Act, 1995 (Act 55 of 1995)*, they cannot join a union (*Labour Act, 1995 (Act 55 of 1995)*; South African National Defence Force Orders/C PERS/1/98; GS1/59/96).

The management of the South African National Defence Force depends on the management approaches that are practised. Management approaches are seen as the way in which the management philosophy is applied in practice. The management approach influences the motivation, commitment, adaptability and satisfaction of the workforce. It changes from time to time, depending on the situation in which supervisors operate. For example, in a combat situation, a manager may use an autocratic approach, whereas in a work situation, a supervisor may allow subordinates to participate by choosing the activities (South African National Defence Force Orders/C PERS/1/98; GS1/59/96).

In order to effectively manage the diverse workforce and to influence their behaviour requires supervisors to motivate subordinates. The next section discusses motivation.

## 7.4 MOTIVATION

The previous sections argued that effective human resource management is needed to increase the organisation's performance and productivity, which is dependent on the recruitment, selection and appointment of the best candidates; the training and development of employees' abilities, skills and competencies; and the optimal utilisation of the diverse workforce. It discussed how the empowered workforce uses their competencies and skills to achieve organisational and individual goals and objectives, and increases their performance, which enhances productivity. This section focuses on how management can motivate the workforce to increase their performance.

The South African National Defence Force uses the normal state instituted motivational systems (remuneration, rewards and bonuses) to stimulate employees to increase their performance. The South African National Defence Force also rewards its uniformed members with awards and commendations (medals and decorations) for good service (10, 20 and 30 years). Employees are also awarded medals for noble deeds performed during military operations, for example, saving a colleague's life in life-threatening situations. The South African National Defence Force uses sport and recreation as means to keep the workforce physically healthy to perform their military duties (Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:14; de Vries, 1998).

Workgroups of the South African National Defence Force are diverse and it is therefore crucial that the workforce be motivated, since the performance of workgroups is influenced by individual characteristics of the group, such as the members' education, training and development, the size of the group, the gender composition, competencies, motivation, interaction and interdependence of the group. A motivated workforce should constantly be challenged to accomplish greater goals, find better solutions to work

problems and be creative in discovering ways to increase productivity. The collective effort of workgroups increases performance that enhances productivity. This is a challenge for the South African National Defence Force, because a large component of the workforce is still being trained and is not optimally utilised (Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:47-49; Fisher, 1996:45-47; van Onselen, 1999; van der Poel, 1998).

According to GS1 (56/96), performance appraisal is a means by which management evaluates employees' performance. It is a management tool that affects the entire work life of all employees. It affects the continued employment of employees, career prospects and corporate advancement. Performance appraisal should be done with utmost care and consideration of the employees' future. Performance appraisal is done by the immediate supervisor, who is the most suitable person to assess subordinates. Employees are given feedback regarding their performance, which takes place quarterly. An assessment committee reviews the assessment before it is submitted to the next hierarchical level. The assessment committee consists of a chairperson (head of department or officer commanding), secretary, rater, ratee and two additional members. The South African National Defence Force operates two performance appraisal systems, one for the uniformed personnel and one for the civilian employees. The performance appraisal system for the senior officers is different to the rest of the uniformed personnel. The performance appraisal system for the senior officers focus more on managerial competencies and leadership attitudes (see 7.3.2) (van der Poel, 1998; Zietsman, 1999).

Chapter 2 dealt with productivity as a function of both the individual's ability and his or her motivation to perform. This is mathematically expressed as:  $\text{ability} \times \text{motivation} = \text{job performance}$ . The employee's ability refers to his or her prior training and experience and competency (see 2.4 and 3.2). Motivation refers to the employees' desire to perform well (see 4.4). The above factors increase employees'



performance and enhance productivity (Cronje et al. 2001:482-483; Eberlein, 1991:49; Ibid, 1996:44-46; Gaither and Frazier, 2002:698-700; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:71-73).

The following deduction can be made when comparing the workforce of the South African National Defence Force with the motivational formulae (Cronje et al. 2001:482-483; Eberlein, 1996:44-46; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:71-73):

- The affirmation motivated the Non-Statutory Force employees to increase their performance, but their abilities were not developed therefore, they could not increase their performance.
- The non-affirmation negatively influenced black disadvantaged Statutory Force employees from increasing their performance (see 1.2 and 6.2), even though they possessed the competencies and skills to do so.
- The affirmation motivated Statutory Force women to increase their performance, because they possess the competencies and skills. However, according to Figure 6.4, women are not well represented in senior and top management levels (positions).
- White Statutory Force men are capable of using their abilities to increase their performance, but are not motivated, because the positions that they could occupy has been given to black Non-Statutory Force members and women.

By not developing employees' potential nor motivating them, will affect their effectiveness to increase their performance. In order for the South African National Defence Force to increase productivity it has to develop, motivate and utilise the full potential of all employees.

The next section is a summary of the above discussion, which is tabulated in a productivity index.

## 7.5 PRODUCTIVITY INDEX

The previous sections focused on the necessity of human resource management. First, it showed how human resource planning enables the South African National Defence Force to adjust its human resources to meet the operational needs of the arms of service. Second, it dealt with how human resource planning provides for the selection of the most competent candidates to fill human resource requirements. Third, it illustrated (see Figure 7.7) the tools provided by human resource development, which are needed to train and develop the diverse workforce, and showed how the workforce can be trained and developed. Fourth, it explored the challenges that the South African National Defence Force face in effectively managing its diverse workforce. It also discussed management's responsibility to motivate the workforce to use their competencies and skills to achieve organisational goals and increase their performance, which enhances productivity. This section portrays a productivity index, which is compiled from the discussions above.

The productivity index (Table 7.1) below is a compilation of research arguments and findings. Sources (Chuter, 2000:55-59; Eberlein, 1990:32; Department of Defence Scenarios and Technology, 1997:3; Defence Review, 1997:10.3-4; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:2A; Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:4; Military Leadership, 1995:1.18; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:512-515; Thompson and Strickland, 2003:429-431) contributed to what is consolidated here as a human resource related productivity index. The productivity index provides management with information that can enhance the effective utilisation of the workforce. Management is responsible for the management of the organisation's resources and are thus responsible for the achievement of increased productivity. Human resource management, motivation and organisational culture are portrayed in the productivity index.

TABLE 7.1: PRODUCTIVITY INDEX

Factor status as at 2001

PRODUCTIVITY FACTORS	4	3	2	1	0
<b>Human Resource Management:</b>					
Recruiting, selecting and appointing employees who possess the abilities, competencies and skills that the organisation requires.				x	
Ensures that trained, developed and competent employees are appointed to appropriate positions.			x		
Involves line managers to support human resource activities.		x			
Ensures that disadvantaged employees are trained, developed and competent to meaningfully contribute towards productivity.		x			
Ensures that all employees are managed individually and corporately according to their potential.			x		
Ensures that employees are trained and developed to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity.		x			
Involves employees in the management of the organisation.		x			
Provides corporate advancement to employees.		x			
Allows supervisors to communicate and give regular feedback to their subordinates.		x			
Ensures that a pool of people are available from which the organisation can select candidates to fill its human resource requirements.		x			
Assess employees' potential for appointment to senior management positions.		x			
Allows supervisors to treat their subordinates fairly and equally in a dignified way.			x		
Allows management not only to affirm disadvantaged employees but also to provide support systems that ensure they succeed.			x		
Allows employees exposure to other staff and line functions within their discipline.		x			
<b>Subtotal</b>	0	27	8	1	0



<b>Motivation:</b>					
Stimulates employees to use their effort and potential to increase their performance and productivity.			x		
Motivates employees to use the organisation's resources to develop their full potential to achieve self-actualisation.		x			
Rewards employees intrinsically and extrinsically according to their performance.		x			
Encourages disadvantaged employees to use their potential to achieve self-actualisation and increase their performance and productivity.		x			
Provides for the basic needs of employees.	x				
Rewards satisfy employees' needs and stimulates them to exert their effort to increase their performance.		x			
Allows supervisors to understand employees' needs.			x		
Allows employees to set more challenging goals.			x		
Allows employees to achieve the organisation's goals.		x			
Allows for effective communications and feedback between supervisors and subordinates.		x			
<b>Subtotal</b>	4	18	6	0	0
<b>Organisational Culture:</b>					
Creates an environment in which disadvantaged employees can be trained, developed and motivated.		x			
Creates an environment in which disadvantaged employees can use their potential to increase their performance and productivity.			x		
Creates an environment that establishes practices that positively influence employees' behaviour.			x		
Creates a culture that allows employees to improve their standard of living and quality of life.		x			
Creates an environment in which disadvantaged employees can use their competencies and skills to achieve self-actualisation and corporate advancement.		x			

Demonstrates the organisation's way of life, of how it conducts business, reacts to growth, responds to society and treats its employees.		x			
Creates an environment in which diverse employees can use their potential to achieve self-actualisation and enjoy corporate advancement.		x			
Creates an environment in which diverse employees can be trained, developed and motivated.		x			
Creates an environment in which honest and fair performance appraisal takes place.			x		
Creates an environment in which employees are remunerated and rewarded according to their performance.			x		
Creates an environment in which participative management takes place.		x			
Creates an environment in which career development takes place.		x			
Creates an environment in which cultural and religious differences are tolerated and respected.		x			
Creates an environment in which transformation and reorganisation can take place.		x			
Creates an environment in which managerial functions and organisational effectiveness can take place.			x		
Creates an environment in which effective human resource management, motivation, leadership and increased productivity can take place.			x		
Allows management to appoint the most competent employees to the most appropriate positions.			x		
Allows managers to create systems, policies and practices that inculcates in employees the desired behaviour that enables them to increase their performance and productivity.			x		
Allows management to preserve the organisation's image and reputation as being the best in the industry.		x			
Creates an environment in which disadvantaged employees can be affirmed and treated in a dignified way.		x			
Creates an environment in which Union participation is allowed.		x			
Creates an environment that allows employees access to recreational and sport facilities.		x			
<b>Subtotal</b>	0	42	16	0	0

An assessment scale is used to evaluate the effectiveness of each factor: 4 indicates that an activity is effective; 3 indicates that an activity is operational; 2 indicates that an activity experiences operational challenges; 1 indicates that an activity experiences serious operational challenges; and 0 indicates that an activity is non-operational and needs management's attention.

From Table 7.1 the following deductions can be made: (1) 64 percent positive response indicates that human resource management contributes towards increasing employees' performance and productivity; (2) 70 percent positive response indicates that supervisors are applying motivational approaches to stimulate subordinates to increase their performance; (3) 64 percent positive response indicates that organisational culture contributes towards creating an environment in which increased performance and productivity can take place.

From the above discussion it is obvious that the sum of increased productivity is greater than the parts thereof. In a unique way, each of the above factors influences and increases employees' performance, which enhances productivity. The level of productivity depends on the effective management of the South African National Defence Force's major resource, its human resources, as discussed above.

## **7.6 CONCLUSION**

Organisational culture allows management to create a right atmosphere where they can manage people effectively. It uses human resource practices, systems and structures to influence employees behaviour. Human resource management allows managers to effectively manage people: (1) to create a pool from which it can select candidates to meet its human resource requirements; (2) to develop employees' abilities, competencies and skills; (3) to appoint the right individual to the most appropriate position; (4)



to optimally utilise people so that they can increase their performance and productivity. To optimally utilise the entire workforce managers should motivate (change the attitude) of both Statutory Forces and Non-Statutory Forces, so that they can use their potential to achieve organisational and individual goals.

The employees' performance is influenced by their experiences, competencies, qualifications and personalities. The diverse workforce can draw from a wide spectrum of abilities, competencies, skills and use their innovative and creative skills to increase their performance, solve complex problems and produce better goods and services. These qualities are nurtured and developed by management, through training, development, utilisation, motivation and managing diversity. This empowers employees to increase productivity, achieve self-actualisation and organisational goals and objectives.

Chapter 7 analysed and explored the factors that influenced productivity in the South African National Defence Force. It showed the crucial role that organisational culture plays in creating a right atmosphere that influences the behaviour and motivates employees to increase their performance. It argued why it is necessary to manage people: (1) the effective development of employees' abilities, competencies and skills; (2) appoint the right individual in the most appropriate position; (3) optimally utilise employees to increase productivity; (4) provide a stable work environment and corporate advancement. It showed how management can use organisational resources to motivate employees to achieve self-actualisation and increase their performance and productivity. The productivity index showed to what extent the independent variables influence productivity: (1) it shows that 64 percent of human resource management activities contribute towards increasing employees' performance and productivity; (2) it shows that 70 percent of motivational activities are being applied by supervisors to stimulate subordinates to increase their performance; (3) it shows that 64 percent of organisational cultural activities contribute towards creating an environment in which human resource management, motivation, increased performance and

productivity can take place. Chapter 8 will introduce the last part of the dissertation and focuses on the findings of the study.

## CHAPTER 8

### FINDINGS

#### 8.1 INTRODUCTION

This study is divided into three parts: the theoretical analysis, operationalisation and findings, recommendations and conclusion. The first part of the dissertation, namely Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5 focused on the theoretical analysis. Chapter 2 looked at the meaning of productivity and alluded to the resources that influence and increase it. It discussed human resource variables, the vital resources that influence productivity, because they add value to the physical variables by designing, constructing and producing consumable goods and services. It stated that productivity increases as the output of the human resource variables intensify, which in turn increase and influence productivity.

Chapter 3 explored how the first independent human resource variable, human resource management, has the ability to utilise the other resources more effectively to achieve organisational goals as productively as possible. Human resources are the major resource that influences productivity, because it has the ability to control and manage the physical variables. Human resource management matches employees' abilities, competencies and skills to the job requirements, to ensure that the best employees are appointed in the most appropriate positions. This enables management to capitalise on employees' competencies and skills, which they use to increase their performance and enhance productivity. Human resource management is supported by three integrated factors that ensure its effectiveness. Human resource planning ensures that the organisation has a large pool of employees from which to select candidates to fill the immediate and future human resource requirements. Human resource development ensures that employees are trained and developed to execute their job more effectively and to fill senior



positions. Managing diversity ensures that employees' abilities, competencies and skills are optimally utilised to achieve increased productivity and organisational effectiveness.

Chapter 4 dealt with the second independent human resource variable, motivation, which stimulates the workforce to improve their performance. It is used to motivate the employees to achieve self-actualisation and individual and organisational goals and objectives. Motivation encourages employees to use their competencies and skills to increase their performance and productivity. It discussed three groups of motivation theories: content theories, process theories and reinforcement theory. Content theories of motivation explain the dynamics of employees' needs – why employees have different needs at different times. Process theories of motivation describe the motive for employees' behaviour – what employees do to satisfy their needs. Reinforcement theory focuses directly on the behaviour that employees would use to increase their performance. These are the means management would use to satisfy employees' needs.

Chapter 5 explored the third independent human resource variable, organisational culture, which can be used to stifle or promote productivity through its nature. It affects the functioning and operation of the organisation and in turn affects the work life of employees. It impacts on the behaviour of the workforce and influences their performance and enhances productivity. It stated that culture is crucial in developing and maintaining levels of intensity and commitment among employees. It argued that culture enables management to introduce, inculcate and reinforce new values, beliefs, traditions and norms in employees. The chapter also stated that organisational culture is the foundation upon which the other human resource variables can be built.

The second part of the dissertation dealt with the operationalisation of the South African National

Defence Force, as case study, which is discussed in Chapters 6 and 7 respectively. Chapter 6 explored how social imbalances created a gulf between whites and blacks. It allowed whites access to organisational resources, while depriving blacks. This disadvantaged blacks in terms of development, utilisation and corporate advancement. It prevented the South African National Defence Force from optimally utilising its entire workforce to increase productivity. It discussed how affirmative action dealt with past social imbalances, but reiterated that managing diversity is a means of empowering a diverse workforce to increase their performance and productivity. Lastly, the chapter focuses on the physical variables that enhances performance and productivity.

Chapter 7 dealt with the interaction and interdependence between human resource planning, human resource development and managing diversity. These factors enable the South African National Defence Force to recruit, select, develop and manage the workforce to achieve organisational and individual goals and objectives. It also discussed how motivation stimulates employees to accept challenging goals and encourages them to use their competencies and skills to achieve these goals. It discussed how management uses organisational culture to introduce and inculcate new behaviour in employees. This is reinforced by rewarding appropriate behaviour. The chapter argued that the effective management of the human resource variables can result in higher productivity.

Chapters 6 and 7 explored the period (1994-2001) immediately after the integration of the seven armed forces (South African Defence Force, Umkhonto we Sizwe, Azanian People's Liberation Army, Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Ciskei and Venda) into the South African National Defence Force. The integration of the seven armed forces increased the workforce from 88 000 to 122 000 (see 7.3.1). The difference between the present (122 000) and envisaged (70 700) workforce is a supernumerary of 41 300. This situation made human resource management difficult: (1) it meant that 41 300 employees had

to be rationalised; (2) 27 000 Non-Statutory Force employees had to be incorporated into the different armed forces and various functional disciplines; (3) 27 000 Non-Statutory Force employees had to be trained, developed, mentored and motivated before they could meaningfully contribute towards productivity; (4) it also made succession planning impossible because 41 300 employees had to be rationalised; (5) it further constrained the defence budget; (6) it further drained the use of facilities and physical resources; (7) it further stretched the use of obsolete armament and technology (Defence Review, 1997:25; Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:6).

The change in human resources affected the composition of the workforce, organisational culture, motivation, productivity and knowledge management of the South African National Defence Force. Severance packages were one method to reduce the supernumeraries to achieve an affordable workforce. Thousands of professional Statutory Force members resigned from the South African National Defence Force. These employees could have helped with the mentorship and coaching (see 3.4) of the disadvantaged Non-Statutory Force employees. The training and development (see 3.4.1 and 7.3), motivation (see 4.4, 4.5, and 4.6) and utilisation (see 3.5 and 7.3) of the Non-Statutory Force employees became a challenge for the South African National Defence Force. These factors influenced the morale of the workforce, which affected their efficiency, effectiveness, motivation and performance and influencing the organisation's productivity. These employees had to be trained, developed and mentored before they could effectively be utilised and contribute towards increased productivity (Defence Review, 1997:25; Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:6).

The South African National Defence Force also faced physical resource challenges. The obsolete armament, equipment (see 7.2) and outdated technology were no longer effective in meeting the goals and objectives of the South African National Defence Force. The transformation was only possible

through effective management, motivation, commitment and determination of management. Management had to establish an organisational culture (see 5.3) that creates a right atmosphere to influence the behaviour and motivates employees to achieve self-actualisation and use their potential to increase their performance and productivity. This meant the structures, systems, policies, procedures and practices had to change to accommodate the diverse workforce. It would allow the diverse workforce to draw from a wide spectrum of competencies, abilities, skills, personalities and experiences to produce better goods and services and to be more productive and industrious (de Vries, 1998).

These chapters are analysed to determine the effect of the human resource variables (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture) on the dependent variable, productivity, in managing the South African National Defence Force toward increased productivity from a human resource management perspective.

This chapter deals with the findings of the research that is presented under appropriate headings used in the study. Figure 8.1 illustrates the logical progression of the chapter. Social imbalances, although not part of human resource variables, form part of this discussion, because they affected the development and utilisation of disadvantaged employees, which influenced their performance and productivity as discussed in Chapter 6.

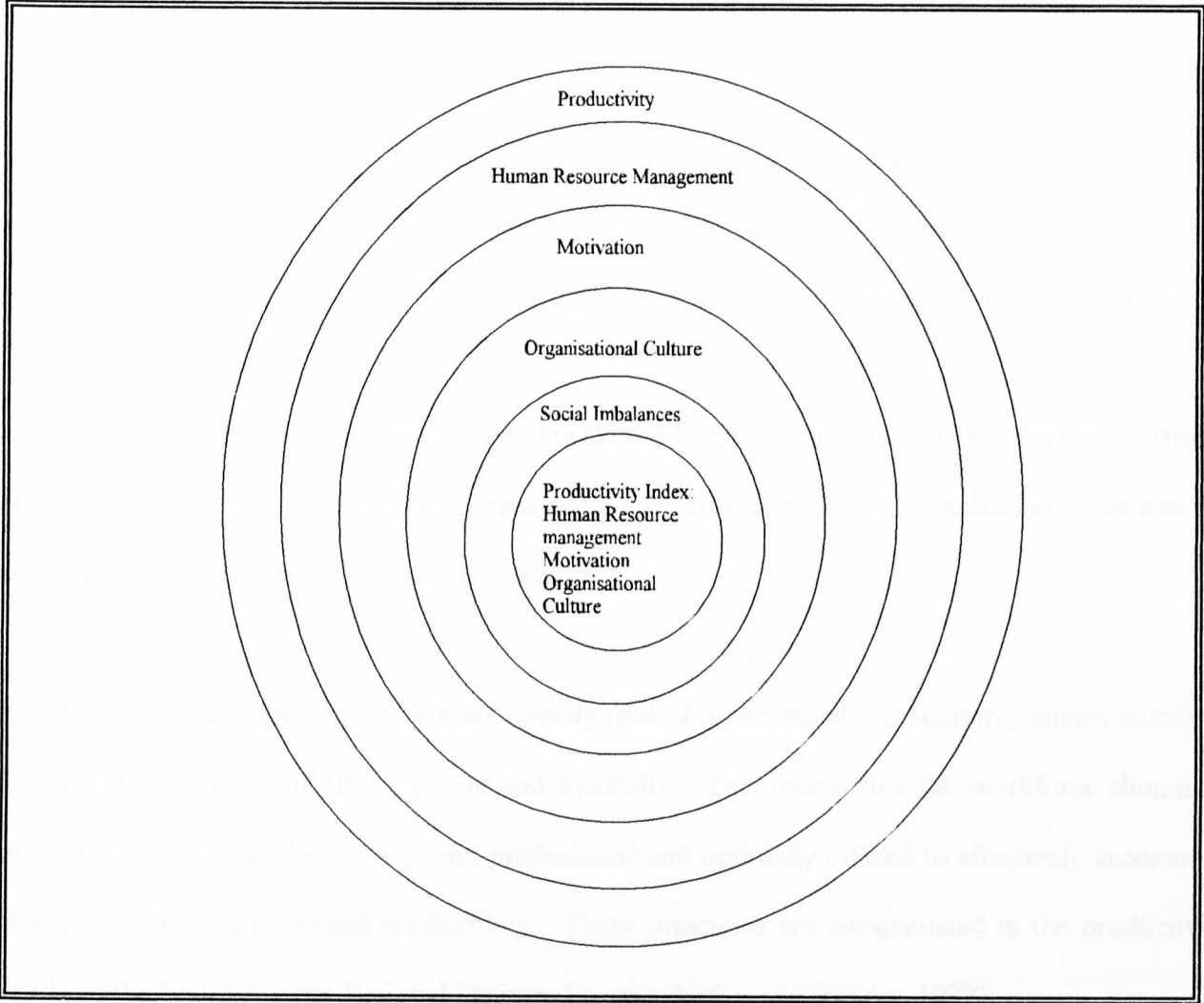
## **8.2 PRODUCTIVITY**

Increased productivity is the solution to a number of challenges that management faces. These challenges include: first, the need for greater quality to satisfy clients' needs and demands for better goods and services and employees' constant demand for increased remuneration; second, the strain to



FIGURE 8.1: APPROACH TO THE FINDINGS OF THE DISSERTATION

SOURCE: Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005



keep abreast of technological advances in order to maintain a competitive advantage over other organisations; third, to train, develop, motivate and manage the diverse workforce and to improve their abilities, competencies, skills to increase performance and enhance productivity; and lastly, the need of professional leaders and managers to manage the South African National Defence Force's resources (Dressler, 1992:10; Robbins, 1990:32-35). The arms procurement, sophisticated armament and technology (see 6.4) are the solution to the above challenges, it: (1) enables the South African National Defence Force to professionally execute its mandate and provide excellent service to all communities; (2) enables the workforce to keep abreast of technological advancement; (3) equips and empower the workforce to increase their performance and productivity; (4) challenges and benefit the entire workforce in applying their knowledge and increasing their competencies and skills (January, 2002; Sunday Times, 4 February 2001; Sunday Argus, 29 December, 2002; 2.4; 3.2; 3.4; 4.4; 4.5; 4.6; 5.3).

At the end of the military campaigns in Namibia (South West Africa) during 1986, the South African Defence Force directed its resources to managing a cost-effective military organisation. This was the beginning of an era of renewed focus on productivity.

Four of the eight principles of warfare are directly related to increased productivity, namely economy of effort, concentration of effort, power and flexibility. This means that the workforce should be motivated, trained, qualified, competent, professional and optimally utilised to effectively accomplish military missions and increased productivity. These principles are encapsulated in the productivity formula of the South African National Defence Force, which is (de Villiers, 1998):

$$\text{productivity} = \frac{\text{Output: Results Achieved}}{\text{Input: Resources Consumed}}$$

The concept corresponds to the literature formula that states that productivity is the output of goods

and services relative to the input of physical and human resource variables. The South African National Defence Force's notion of increased productivity is increased efficiency in the transformation of production input into greater consumable goods and services. To give effect to the theories, it applied a three-pronged approach to productivity: the centralisation of policy formulation and coordination, the decentralisation of execution to the arms of service and centralised control. This approach permeated the arms of service to the lowest micro level, the unit. It means that the micro units do the actual work that increases productivity. This means that productivity depends on employees' training, development, abilities, competencies, personalities, experiences, skills and motivation. These can be achieved by managing diversity and the Flex-management model, Figure 3.1 (Campbell and Campbell, 1990:114; Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:4; Gaither, 1992:587; Gaither and Frazier, 2002:702-704; Heap, 1992:4; Sutermeister, 1969:5; Wild, 1995:408-409; 2.4).

Table 8.1 depicts a comparison of the literature and case study. It indicates the operational factors that affect productivity, as well as other factors that need management's attention. Table 7.1 indicates the effectiveness of each factor: 4 indicates that an activity is effective; 3 indicates that an activity is operational; 2 indicates that an activity experiences operational challenges; 1 indicates that an activity experiences serious operational challenges; and 0 indicates that an activity is non-operational and needs management's attention.

The productivity table is a compilation of research arguments and findings. First, it shows that 64 percent of human resource management activities contribute towards increasing employees' performance and productivity. Second, it shows that 70 percent of motivational activities are being applied by supervisors to stimulate subordinates to increase their performance. Third, it shows that 66 percent of

TABLE 8.1: PRODUCTIVITY INDEX

<b>Operational</b>	<b>Experiencing operational challenges</b>	<b>Need management's attention</b>
Human resource management 64 percent	Human resource management 29 percent	Human resource management 7 percent
Motivation 70 percent	Motivation 30 percent	
Organisational culture 64 percent	Organisational culture 36 percent	

organisational cultural activities contribute towards creating an environment in which human resource management, motivation, increased performance and productivity can take place (Avolio et al. 1991:43-46; Campbell and Campbell, 1990:114; Donohue and Wong, 1994:24, 29; Dressler, 1992:10; Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:4; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:3-4; Gaither, 1992:587; Gaither and Frazier, 2002:702-704; Heap, 1992:4; Katz, 1997:375-376; Military Leadership, 1995:1.18; Popper et al. 1992:3-4; Ricketts, 1997:25-27; Robbins, 1990:32-35; Sutermeister, 1969:5; van der Merwe, 1992:5; Weisbord, 1991:90; Wild, 1995:408-409; Yukl, 1994:49; 2.4; 3.2; 3.4; 4.4; 4.5; 4.6; 5.3; 5.4; 7.3; 7.4; 7.5).

Managers are responsible for the optimal utilisation of organisational resources, of which human resources are the most crucial, because it adds value to other resources and use them to increase



productivity and organisational effectiveness. The managing of people is therefore one of the most important functions of managers, is discussed below.

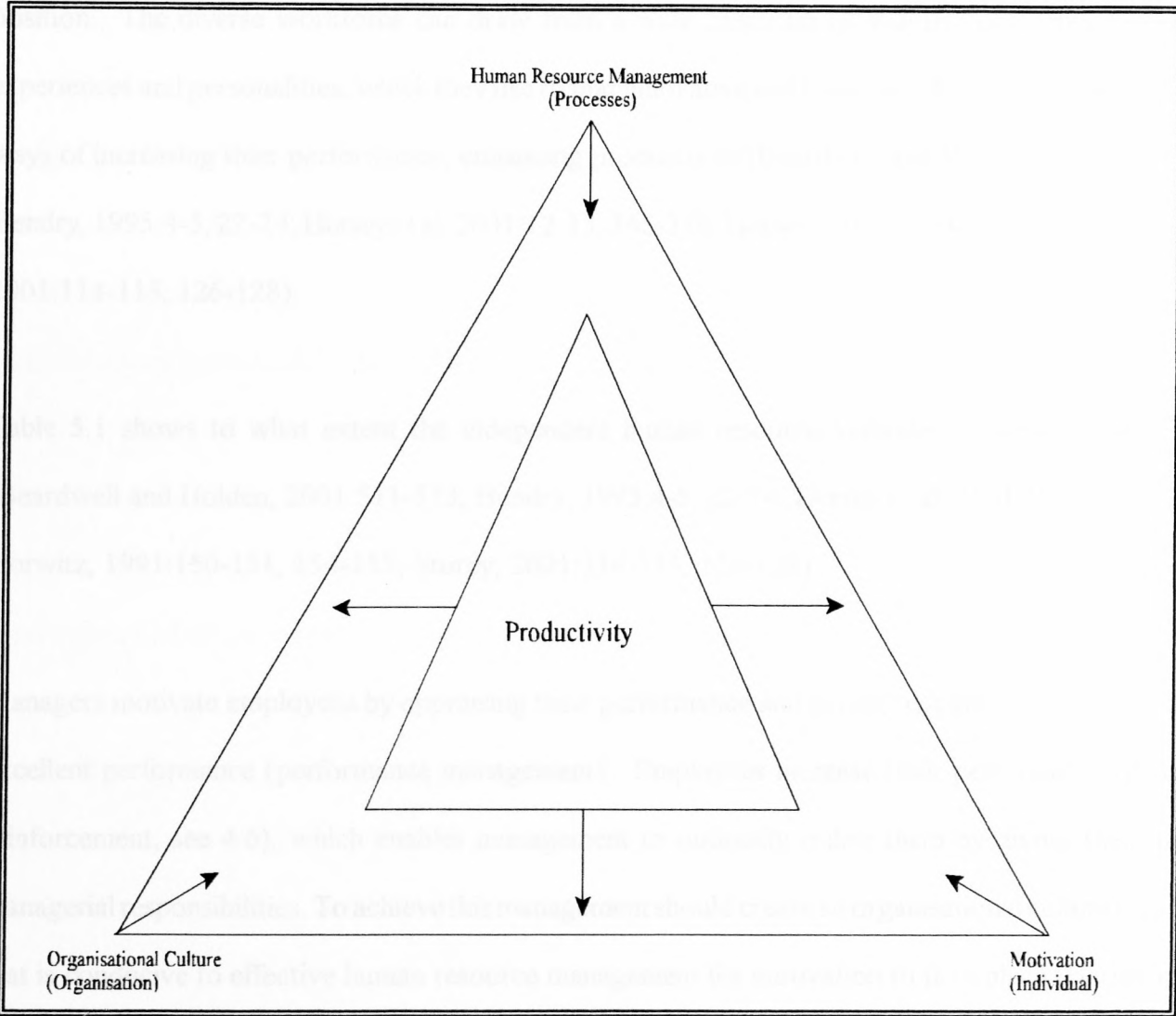
### **8.3 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

The flex-management model (Figure 3.1) allows managers to use the human resource variables, illustrated in Figure 2.2, to manage the South African National Defence Force towards productivity from a human resource management perspective. It allows managers to develop and capitalise on the skills, abilities and competencies of a diverse workforce. They can appoint the most competent employees to the most appropriate positions. The diverse workforce is more creative in solving complex problems; they are productive and produce better goods and services because they are able to draw from a wide spectrum of abilities, skills, competencies, qualifications, personalities and experiences. The model treats employees as individuals with unique desires, needs and aspirations. It allows management to create an organisational culture and work environment that are conducive to employees achieving self-actualisation, increased performance and productivity. It allows for direct communication between supervisors and subordinates and involves employees in participative management. It allows management to reward employees for excellent performance. The Flex-Management model, with the support of managing diversity makes it possible to achieve all of the above (3.5; 6.3; 7.4).

Figure 8.2 illustrates the human resource variables (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture) that influence productivity. Figure 2.2 depicts how human resource practices implicitly or explicitly create an organisational culture and reinforce one another to support a particular culture and increase productivity. For example, human resource planning (see 3.3; 7.3) ensures that the South African National Defence Force has a pool of employees from which to select candidates to fill

FIGURE 8.2: HUMAN RESOURCE VARIABLES INFLUENCE PRODUCTIVITY

SOURCE: Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005



immediate and future human resource requirements (see 3.2; 7.3.1). Human resource development (see 3.4; 7.3.2) enables management to develop employees' abilities, competencies and skills, which they use to increase their performance and enhances productivity. Trained and developed employees use their competencies, abilities and skills to increase their performance and productivity. Managing diversity (see 3.5; 7.3.3) enables management to appoint the most competent employees in the most appropriate position. The diverse workforce can draw from a wide spectrum of abilities, competencies, skills, experiences and personalities, which they use to find innovative and creative solutions and discover new ways of increasing their performance, enhancing productivity (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:511-513; Hendry, 1995:4-5, 22-24; Hersey et al. 2001:12-13, 346-348; Horwitz, 1991:150-151, 154-155; Storey, 2001:114-115, 126-128).

Table 5.1 shows to what extent the independent human resource variables influence productivity (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:511-513; Hendry, 1995:4-5, 22-24; Hersey et al. 2001:12-13, 346-348; Horwitz, 1991:150-151, 154-155; Storey, 2001:114-115, 126-128).

Managers motivate employees by appraising their performance and giving recognition and reward for excellent performance (performance management). Employees increase their performance (positive reinforcement, see 4.6), which enables management to optimally utilise them by giving them more managerial responsibilities. To achieve this management should create an organisational culture (see 5.3) that is conducive to effective human resource management for motivation to take place (Hersey et al. 2001:346-348; Storey, 2001:126 -128). Organisational culture influences employees' attitude and the

way they behave in the organisation and serves as a social glue that bonds employees together and makes them feel part of the organisational experience. How employees perform, view their job, work with

colleagues and look at the future are largely determined by cultural values, norms and beliefs. The greater the interaction between the human resource variables, the greater the influence on productivity. Productivity increases progressively as the human resource variables impacts on it (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:513; Hendry, 1995:22-24; Horwitz, 1991: 154-155).

The integration of the seven armed forces into the South African National Defence Force was overseen by the highest governing bodies of both Parliament and the Department of Defence (Parliamentary Integration Oversight Committee of the Joint Parliamentary Standing Committee for Defence, Defence Command Council and Joint Military Command Council). Furthermore, representatives from the seven armed forces and the British Advisory and Training Team were permanent members of the integration and placement committees at the different units of the arms of service (1.2; 7.3.3).

Managers are responsible for directing and managing the South African National Defence Force's physical (capital, technology and material) and human resources (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture). Their responsibilities include the effective achievement of organisational goals and objectives, and the training and development of the diverse workforce to achieve increased performance and productivity. They should motivate the workforce to achieve self-actualisation and create an organisational culture and work environment that improve the quality of work life for all employees (2.4; 3.2; 4.4; 4.5; 4.6; 5.3; 6.3).

The management of human resources depends on effective human resource policies and practices, which allow equal opportunities to all employees. The policies and practices should be communicated to the entire workforce, so that the employees know what behaviour is required of them and what benefits they are entitled to (1.2; 3.3).



Human resource management focuses on three core functions of management and include human resource planning, human resource development and managing diversity, which are discussed in the subsections that follow below.

### **8.3.1 Human Resource Planning**

The integration of the seven armed forces into the South African National Defence Force affected human resource planning. It lacked the capacity to accommodate such a large workforce. The succession planning system of the former South African Defence Force was not geared to deal with such a large, diverse workforce. The new organisational structures were not in place to do effective human resource planning. Human resource planning became more difficult when thousands of professional Statutory Force employees resigned during the infancy of the integration. This particularly affected human resource utilisation and human resources development. It disarranged human resource management because of the ripple effect that is caused by transfers and replacement of personnel. Human resource planning became the responsibility of the relevant headquarters (arms of services, formations and units) at the various hierarchical levels of the South African National Defence Force (7.3.1; 7.3.3).

Human resource planning is an integral part of the Strategic Management Planning Process of the South African National Defence Force. At each descending hierarchical level, human resource policies are detailed until they reach the lowest operational levels where orders, instructions and standing operation procedures are executed. The medium strategies are reviewed annually and formulated into short-term goals, so that they can be executed during the ensuing year. The human resource planning reflects management's philosophy, organisational culture and organisational symbolism. It is a prerequisite and sets the parameters in which the human resource selection should operate. Human resource planning

prescribes the competencies, skills and abilities that are required by the organisation. Human resource selection seeks to attract and appoint suitable candidates who possess the required competencies, skills and abilities that are required by the organisation (Cook, 1991:128, 240; Roodt, 1991:52; 3.3; 5.3; 7.3.1).

Human resources are part of a long-term strategy and involve a substantial percentage of the South African National Defence Force's budgets. It is therefore crucial that a good match be made between the incumbent's competencies, abilities and the job requirements. It is claimed that human resources selection can assist in making this match possible. It can also assist management in appointing competent employees to appropriate positions. To facilitate this matching process, the appropriate personality and psychological tests should be administered. According to research, there is not a great difference between similar test results, for example, the results of a personality test will differ slightly from that of an aptitude test. The validity generalisation remains the same across various jobs or situations. Selection tests can be manipulated to perpetuate the status quo. Therefore, management is inclined to appoint employees who support their philosophy, uphold the organisational culture and maintain the current human resource policies and practices. However, the human resource selection criteria have been changed to accommodate the disadvantaged employees (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:142-145; Cook, 1991:150-151; Roodt, 1991:52; 3.3; 7.3.1).

The South African National Defence Force cannot compete with private organisations to attract the best employees in a particular discipline. Private organisations offer elaborate remuneration packages, superb working conditions and unlimited career prospects. The larger the percentage of the best employees that are employed, the higher the employees' performance and the greater productivity. Such institutions require a smaller workforce to effectively achieve organisational goals and objectives (Cook, 1991:4-5;

Campbell and Campbell, 1990:97-98; 3.3).

The South African National Defence Force uses assessment centres to assess senior officers for appointment to senior and top management positions. Junior and non-commissioned officers are not subject to assessment. Human resource planning attracts candidates who possess the required military characteristics. These candidates should be developed to become qualified and professional employees (Van Onselen, 1999; van Wyk, 1997:2.1-3.3; van Wyk, 1998; 3.3).

### **8.3.2 Human Resource Development**

Human resources are a crucial element for increased productivity. It develops employees' abilities, skills and competencies, which can be utilised to achieve organisational goals and objectives. The development of employees should focus on four major areas: the physical, mental, psychological and emotional. This helps to develop employees who are motivated, intelligent, mature and react responsibly when dealing with complex issues and difficult situations. Managers should be developed so that they can deal with corporate challenges and ensure that employees achieve organisational goals, objectives, increased performance and productivity. This will enable them to better manage the organisation's resources (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:277-278; Katz, 1997:60-63; Latham and Wexley, 1994:2; Heap, 1992:146; 3.2.2).

The workforce should first be trained before they can do their job and be utilised to deal with the reality of battle, violence, peace missions and disaster. The next subsections discuss training and development and how training increases performance.

### 8.3.2.1 Training and Development

Development is a process of growth and maturity that prepares employees to function on the next level of management. The employees progress according to their abilities, competencies, skills, qualification and experiences. The workforce of South African National Defence Force is constantly being trained, educated and developed. The employees are trained to operate in varying situations, such as negotiating with local authorities and community leaders, controlling violence, peace-keeping operations and safeguarding life and property. The employees are trained and developed to operate sophisticated armament and to keep abreast of rapid technological advancement in the armament industry. The South African National Defence Force will have to train its workforce to operate the new armament and technology when acquired. The effective utilisation of new armament and technology should be used to determine employees' future career development, corporate advancement and a tool to motivate disgruntled Statutory Force employees who are demotivated because of the above. It is a resource that can be used to create equal opportunities for the entire workforce, because none of the employees have an advantage of prior exposure to such training (Cronje et al. 2001:474-476, Human, 1996:6-12; Van Dyk et al. 1997:409; White Paper on Defence, 1997:3.15; 1.2; 3.4.1; 7.3.2.1).

The South African National Defence Force has accepted the instructional psychological approach of learning, which focuses attention on the learner rather than the instructor. The approach is concerned with the learning and training programmes. Training enables employees to acquire competencies and skills to increase their performance and enhances productivity. Training increases employees competencies, skills and abilities, which increase their value and marketability. This is the door to social and economic prosperity. Training is the only means of acquiring knowledge and allows hands-on and ample opportunities to practice and master one's functional discipline. It qualifies employees to operate



sophisticated armament, equipment and technology. It is an investment that produces future returns and narrows the performance and development gap between the disadvantaged and privileged employees. It should be work-related in order to increase employees' competencies, skills, performance and enhances productivity (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:331-333; Cronje et al. 2001:474-476; Human, 1996:6-12; Wild, 1995:110-111; 3.4.1; 7.3.2.1).

It could be deducted that to accomplish increased productivity, managers at all levels of the hierarchy should capitalise on the employees' competencies, skills and abilities, so that they can optimally utilise them in the most appropriate positions. To do this, management should ensure that the employees are trained and developed, since training is the only means of imparting knowledge and empowering employees with competencies and skills to increase their performance and enhance productivity.

#### **8.3.2.2 Training Increases Performance**

According to De Vries, (1998) increased productivity can be achieved when the South African National Defence Force invest in its major resource, human resources. They should train and develop employees in order to improve their skills, abilities and competencies, so that they can be more efficient and effective. Management should motivate and optimally utilise employees to achieve organisational goals and objectives and increased productivity. The South African National Defence Force should also invest in the development of managers. Management development is a means of educating and developing managers to deal with processes of change. It help managers to manage complex challenges that they have not experienced before. This means that managers cannot rely on past experience alone, but have to use informal and unplanned experiences to deal with organisational challenges. Management development enables organisations to take advantage of technological advancement to market and sell

their goods and services, enter global markets to enlarge their market shares, expand capital investment and increase profits, develop their workforce to be innovative and creative in producing new and better goods and services, and be market leaders and take advantage of their competitiveness to reduce prices (2.4; 3.4; 3.5; 7.3.2; 7.4; 7.5).

Management development is a tool for preparing and providing effective managers who can increase the organisation's performance, productivity and achieve current and future organisational goals and objectives. The workforce of the South African National Defence Force is the only resource that can maximise the current technology, equipment and armament to increase performance and productivity. Therefore, human resources are actively involved in the transformation of producing consumable goods and services. They increase the value of goods and service (2.4; 3.4; 3.5; 7.3.2; 7.4; 7.5).

Employees' performance can be improved by on-the-job training and off-the-job training. Their performance during the initial and early stages differ greatly with their performance over time. The more experienced the employees become, the greater their performance, the better the quality and quantity of goods and services. Hands-on experience during training increases the learning experience and promotes early performance on-the-job. Training is a means to an end. The returns on investment in training should not be seen as immediate benefits, but rather as a medium- to long-term investment. Training and development are part of the human resource management strategy, which provides a pool of qualified employees not only for the immediate, but for future human resource requirements (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:331-333; Hellriegel et al. 2001:251; Hendry, 1995:298-299; Van Dyk et al. 1997:395-397; 3.3; 7.3.1).

Mentor-protégé relationships should match Non-Statutory Force employees to professional Statutory

Force employees, but it did not. This would have built a trust relationship between mentors and protégés and promotes cultural tolerance among a diverse workforce. It would also have reduced the transition period between training and actual work performance; it would have improved the performance of protégés and motivated them to become as industrious and productive as their mentors. The relationship would have provided practical experience prior to and after the completion of formal training. The mentor-protégé relationship would have enabled the South African National Defence Force to experience lower turnover and greater employee commitment. The above could not take place because: (1) the mentor-protégé relationships failed during the initial implementation because of rumours that blacks would takeover the positions of whites; (2) lack of trust between Non-Statutory Force and Statutory Force employees; (3) lack of cultural understanding between Non-Statutory Force and Statutory Force employees (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:397-398; Cascio, 1991:6-7; Roodt, 1991:52; Torrington et al. 1994:432; van der Poel, 1998; van Onselen, 1999; 3.5; 7.3; 7.4).

The South African National Defence Force has established mechanisms to facilitate a learning culture, where employees can achieve self-actualisation and acquire competencies and skills to effectively achieve organisational goals and objectives. The Competency Achievement and Capability Models (see Figures 7.4 and 7.5) provide opportunities for all employees to qualify themselves in their respective functional disciplines and to obtain staff qualification. To replace the shortage of professional leaders requires that disadvantaged employees should be trained, educated and developed at a faster rate (Department of Defence Education, Training and Professional Development, 1997:29-30, 77-78; South African National Defence Force Order/C PERS/1/98:A.6; van der Poel, 1998; 7.4).

The employees' abilities, skills and competencies are developed to enable them to increase their performance and enhance productivity. Managers should know employees' competencies, abilities,

personalities, skills and qualifications to optimally utilise them (3.5; 7.3).

### **8.3.3 Managing Diversity**

The integration of the seven armed forces into the South Africa National Defence Force brought diverse challenges that were previously unknown to management. Some of these challenges are managing affirmative action, equal employment opportunities, motivating, training and developing a larger diverse workforce (1.2; 6.2; 7.3).

The leadership of the former South African Defence Force continued to manage the new South African National Defence Force. Figure 7.11A indicates that whites are managing the South African National Defence Force because blacks are in the majority in the lower ranks (private to sergeant and lieutenant), while whites are in the majority in the higher ranks (captain to major general and staff sergeant to warrant officer class 1) (South African National Defence Force Order/C PERS/1/02.4).

Disadvantaged Non-Statutory Force employees were appointed to certain key positions, but the power and control remained in the hands of the minority white Statutory Force members. This situation is constantly changing, as more disadvantaged employees are qualified and appointed to senior and top management positions (7.3; 7.4).

Voluntary severance packages were used to reduced the workforce of the South African National Defence Force. It allowed competent and professional Statutory Force members to resign at a time when their expertise was most needed. These members could have served as mentors to the disadvantaged employees (6.2; 7.3).



Human resources are labour intensive and managers should therefore capitalise on the employees' skills, abilities and competencies. They should optimally utilise and appoint the most competent employees to the most appropriate positions. This was not done, instead, the status quo was maintained, with a few exceptions as indicated above. The Flexible Service System manages the force levels and human resource requirements of the South African National Defence Force. The system is effective when management has to deal with budget constraints (Cascio, 1991:340; Cronje et al. 2001:474-476; Bearwell and Holden, 2001:331-333; Hilton et al. 1991:140-141; Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:17; 7.3).

The staffing of the South African National Defence Force seemed to benefit the Statutory Force members, because they are qualified, experienced, professional and have most likely served in those positions. The Non-Statutory Force employees are disadvantaged because they cannot compete with ten, twenty or thirty years of experience of the Statutory Force members. However, affirmative action allowed disadvantaged Non-Statutory Force employees to be appointed to management positions. No central body was established to monitor and control the staffing process and progress, as to ensure that representation at all management levels was achieved. This means that the representation, as discussed in 6.3, may not be achieved (Eberlein, 1991:44; Gaither, 1992:588-589; Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:19-20; Thiart, 1995:40-41; Van Onselen, 1999; 3.5; 7.3).

The Department of Defence has not achieved the prescribed policy ratios of representation and has failed in staffing the South African National Defence Force to represent the demographics of South Africa. Blacks have not advanced to reach the prescribed level of affirmative action. The levels of women in the South African National Defence Force and in different ranks are not in accordance with the percentages reflected in Figures 6.4A and 7.11A. These figures reflect the statistics for April 2002.

Blacks are in the majority in the lower ranks (private to sergeant and lieutenant), while whites are in the majority in the higher ranks (captain to major general and staff sergeant to warrant officer class 1). A comparison between Figures 6.2, 6.4A and 7.11A indicates a gradual movement toward the achievement of the prescribed policy ratios (South African National Defence Force Order/C PERS 1/02.4; 6.3; 7.3).

The South African National Defence Force has a management process that allows for centralised control and decentralised participation. Employees at the micro level are involved in the management processes of their respective organisational units. The degree of involvement depends on the employees' hierarchical position in the South African National Defence Force. Top and senior executives have more power and authority than lower ranking employees and therefore more actively involved in the management of the South African National Defence Force (Department of Defence GS/59/96; 7.2).

To manage the Non-Statutory Forces and Statutory Forces require leaders and managers who are committed and determined to motivate the diverse workforce to move beyond the past and focus on the future. The next section deals with motivation and its influence on productivity.

## **8.4 MOTIVATION**

Motivation is a manager's ability to influence employees to change their attitude and behaviour and use their potential to increase their performance, which enhances productivity. It is an inner quality that is self-generated. It is the driving force that enables employees to exert their efforts and energies to achieve both individual and organisational goals and objectives. Employees are motivated by their desire (inner quality) to do a good job that meaningfully contribute to the organisation's effectiveness. The achievement of goals reinforces the awareness of accomplishing tasks and the promotion of self-image.

Motivated employees strive to acquire additional competencies and qualification, and therefore managers should provide employees with the appropriate training and development opportunities, and treat employees in a dignified way. It is necessary that new employees be assigned to motivated employees, so that the motivated employees can inculcate in the new employees the appropriate attitudes and behaviours that will influence their performance (Bruce and Pepitone, 1999:1-2; Armstrong, 1996:40; Johnson and Redmond, 1998:54-56; Steers et al. 1996:88-89; 4.4; 4.5; 4.6). Motivation theories fall into three categories: content theories, process theories and reinforcement theory, which are discussed in the subsections that follow.

#### **8.4.1 Content Theories of Motivation**

Content theories of motivation explain the dynamics of employees' needs, such as why people have different needs at different times. Content theories of motivation answer the question: what needs do employees have that should be met on the job? It focuses on identifying and understanding employees' needs. It deals with unmet needs that could be satisfied at work. By understanding employees' needs, management can discover what motivates them (Gibson et al. 1994:148-149; Lussier, 1997:364).

Maslow advocates that all individuals have a set of human needs that are prioritised on an ascending scale: physiological, safety and security, belongingness, esteem and ego and self-actualisation needs. These needs are prevalent in the South African National Defence Force, because the workforce comes from different social, economic and political backgrounds and therefore have different needs and wants that should be satisfied accordingly. The South African National Defence Force satisfies the basic needs (remuneration, rewards, medical, pension, housing and medals) of employees, but also higher needs (self-actualisation and corporate advancement) of achievers (Gerber et al. 1998:260-261; McShane and

Von Glinow, 2000:67-68; Steers et al. 1996:13-15; Department of Defence Corporate Productivity Award, 1996:14; Zietsman, 1999).

Herzberg Motivator-Hygiene Theory proposes that employees are primarily motivated by growth and esteem needs, such as recognition, responsibility, advancement, achievement and personal growth. These factors are called motivators because employees experience job satisfaction when they are received and are therefore motivated to obtain them. Hygienes are extrinsic factors to the work; they affect the extent to which employees feel job dissatisfaction. Hygienes include job security, working conditions, policies, co-worker relations and supervisor relations. The workforce of the South African National Defence Force experience the Motivator-Hygiene Theory: (1) career development and corporate advancement of employees; (2) power and authority that allows employees to execute their functional duties and responsibilities; (3) systems, structures and policies that create an environment that allows employees to achieve self-actualisation (Gerber et al. 1998:264; Gibson et al. 1994:154; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:69; van der Poel, 1998; Zietsman, 1999).

McClelland's Theory of Learned Needs focuses on three needs: achievement, affiliation and power. Achievers are employees who have reached their peak (top and senior executive positions) in the South African National Defence Force. They experience job satisfaction and corporate advancement. Social groups, sports and recreational clubs reveal the social nature of employees to belong, to be accepted and interact with one another. Employees in leadership and management positions display their power by exercising control over others (Gerber et al. 1998:267; Gibson et al. 1994:157; Lussier, 1997:367-368; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:72).



### 8.4.2 Process Theories of Motivation

Process theories of motivation describe the processes through which needs are translated into behaviour. Process theories explain why someone with a particular need engages in a particular direction, intensity and persistence of effort to reduce the need tension. Process motivation theories answer the question: how do employees choose behaviour to fulfill their needs? It focuses on understanding how employees choose behaviour to fulfill their needs. It deals with motive – how employees select the correct behaviour to satisfy a particular need. This means that employees choose different behaviour to satisfy different needs (Armstrong, 1996:43; Jamieson and O' Mara, 1991:41-42; Robbins, 2001:164).

The Goal-Setting Theory predicts that specific hard goals produce a higher level of output than does the generalised goal of “do your best.” The specificity of the goal itself acts as an internal stimulus. If factors such as ability and acceptance of the goals are held constant, then the more difficult the goal, the higher the level of performance. The South African National Defence Force involves employees at the different hierarchical levels in the setting operational, functional and strategic goals and objectives. Employees are given feedback (debriefing) after the completion of military operations. This provides opportunities to learn from mistakes and prevent recurrence thereof. It allows for better planning and execution. Achievers distinguish themselves from ordinary employees by setting challenging goals for which they are rewarded. For example, a clerk will work hard and increase his or her performance when he or she knows that high performance will be rewarded (merit bonus or promotion) (Campbell and Campbell, 1990:148; Hume, 1995:13-15; Johnson and Redmond, 1998:55-56; Zietsman, 1999).

### 8.4.3 Reinforcement Theory

Reinforcement Theory answers the question: what can managers do to get employees to behave in ways that meet the organisational goals and objectives? It deals with how employees behave or act to satisfy a need. It argues that, through the consequences for behaviour, employees will be motivated to behave in predetermined ways. It reiterates that behaviour is learned through consequences, which is administered by managers. The consequences can either lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction – the degree to which the need is met and for how long before dissatisfaction reoccurs, creating an unmet need. The cycle is then repeated. The South African National Defence Force motivates employees by giving remuneration, rewards, medical, pension and housing allowance to all employees, merit bonuses to achievers, providing sport and recreational facilities and opportunities, providing day care facilities to the children of the employees, providing medals and decorations for brave and noble tasks and providing adventurous challenges to young people (Gibson et al. 1994:177-178; Lussier, 1997:374; Steers and Porter, 1991:69-71; 4.4; 4.5; 4.6; 7.4).

Performance appraisals in the South African National Defence Force take place quarterly. The assessment is done by the immediate supervisor. An assessment committee reviews the assessment before it is submitted to the next hierarchical level. The assessment committee consists of a chairperson (head of department or officer commanding), secretary, rater, ratee and two additional members. The South African National Defence Force operates two performance appraisal systems, one for the uniformed personnel and one for the civilian employees. The performance appraisal system for the senior officers is different to the one for the rest of the uniformed personnel (GS1 56/96; 7.4).

The employees perceive performance appraisals as unfair because of the different ratings that managers

give them and the negative feedback that is given at the time. Negative feedback has a negative effect on the employees' behaviour, which may continue for twelve weeks. The employees' negative behaviour may also influence the performance of other employees. This may affect the groups' performance, which may affect increased productivity (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:543-545; Hellriegel et al. 2001:253; Latham and Wexley, 1994:1; Meyer et al. 1991:70; 4.10).

Managers should not only motivate employees to improve their performance, but should also create an organisational culture that is conducive to the improvement of the quality of work life. The next section focuses on organisational culture and its contribution toward productivity.

## **8.5 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

Organisational culture influences productivity by creating a right atmosphere that motivates employees to increase their competencies, abilities, skills and performance. Employees should therefore have access to organisational resources and be educated, trained and developed to increase their performance and productivity. Organisational culture provides employees with support structures (unions, formal and informal communication channels) and improves the quality of work life of the entire workforce (2.4; 3.4; 4.4; 5.3; 7.5).

The South African National Defence Force operates within the national cultural environment of South African communities and business sectors. It consists of subcultures, the arms of service with their unique traditions, symbols, rituals, occupational groupings and functional disciplines. At the centre of the cultural cycle (see Figure 7.4) is the employee who is bombarded and indoctrinated with military and societal traditions and cultures. The employees can behave in a manner that is consistent with their

functional discipline. The employees are also members of subcultures, the arms of service, doing the functional training and wearing the uniform of their respective arms of service. The subculture is subservient to the dominant culture, abiding by military traditions and norms of the South African National Defence Force (Defence Review, 1997:41-43; 5.3; 7.2).

Military tradition, norms and values affect the functioning and operation of the South African National Defence Force, which in turn affect the work life of employees. It impacts on the behaviour of the workforce and influences their performance, and enhances productivity. The employees are members of ethnic groups and observe and attend social and ceremonial gatherings. The above cultural groupings are subservient to the national culture of South Africa and observe national traditions. Artifacts play a major role in depicting the South African National Defence Force's culture. These are seen in the building structures, armament, uniform, rank structure, functional badges, military ceremonies and military greetings (saluting). The foundation of culture is unseen; the values, norms, beliefs and assumptions that form an integral part of the military lifestyle. The military culture becomes a lifestyle distinguishing soldiers from civilians. Culture enables management to introduce, inculcate and reinforce new values, beliefs, traditions and norms in employees (Defence Review, 1997:41-43; 5.3; 7.2).

Figure 5.1 illustrated that organisational culture is an important cause of organisational effectiveness. The system of shared values, beliefs and norms (see 5.3) is the product of the interaction among the selection processes, the managerial functions; the organisation's behaviour, structure and process and the larger environment in which the organisation exists. The organisational culture results from the national culture, which then effects workplace values, attitudes, beliefs, norms and goals. The result of these interactions affects behaviour: performance, attendance, satisfaction and ethical behaviour. This underscores the South African National Defence Force's cultural concept discussed in 7.2 (Gibson et



al. 1994:65-66; Hersey et al. 2001:343-344).

Culture is a learnt product of the group experience, a reflection of the organisations' philosophy, policies, practices, beliefs and values. Culture is determined by top executives and permeates the organisation from the top to the lowest hierarchical level. Tall organisational structures create a difference in the beliefs held by those at the higher and those at the lower levels in the corporate hierarchy. Individual members can effect change and are changed by the organisation's culture. Top executives appoint employees who are fully indoctrinated into the organisation's culture to senior management positions. These employees ensure the continued existence of the organisation's culture (Eberlein, 1990:32; Heap, 1992:86; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:498-500; Robbins, 1990:53-57; Stewart, 1997:29-31; Tayeb, 1996:97-98; Thompson and Strickland, 2003:378-379; 5.3).

The management of the South African National Defence Force has done much to change its external culture through: a change in rank structure, organisational structures and training of civilians. The external symbols and structures are good, but cannot change the minds, hearts and attitudes of employees. This requires inner change that will take years to accomplish. There is not much inter-cultural interaction and learning taking place to assist Asians, blacks, coloureds and whites to understand and appreciate each others' values, traditions and cultures (Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:1A.23; 5.3; 7.5).

Diversity creates a climate for greater creativity, because a diverse workforce can draw from a wide spectrum of experience, exposure, competencies, personalities and interests. This makes them more efficient, effective, industrious and productive to solve complex work problems and produce better goods and service. Therefore, leaders should establish an organisational culture that is conducive to the

optimal use of the diverse workforce (Cox, 1994:237-240; Defence Review, 1997:38; Hall, 1995:25; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:9-10; Pederson and Hernandez, 1996:110; Robbins, 2001:14-15; Tayeb, 1996:189-190; 3.5; 7.3.3).

Leaders are responsible for the management of the diverse workforce, which includes dealing with social imbalances and implementing affirmative action programmes. They should also motivate employees to exert their energies and efforts to increase their performance and enhance productivity. They are also responsible for the education, training and development of employees, to enable them to increase their abilities, competencies and skills to achieve self-actualisation and organisational goals and objectives (Kotter, 1990:104, 107; Gerber et al. 1987:100; Yukl, 1994:49; 5.4).

Military leaders are vested with the legitimate hierarchical power to command and control military forces to accomplish missions, goals and objectives. The South African National Defence Force needs leaders who know when to apply the appropriate leadership styles (transformational, transactional, instrumental, democratic and participative), to motivate the diverse workforce to unleash their potential and exert their effort to increase their performance above what is expected of them, to affirm employees' trust and confidence in leaders and inspire employees to become as industrious and productive as the leaders are; to use their leadership and personalities to help employees to be tolerant towards their coemployees (Avolio et al. 1991:43-46; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:1.5, 3.17; Popper et al. 1992:3-4; Yukl, 1994:49; 5.4.4; 7.5).

Corporate and military leadership share the common aim of influencing people, but have distinct differences. The environment in which military leadership is practised is life-threatening. The dynamics

of battle and the psychological strain of combat exert an influence on the soldiers. Military leaders have legitimate power to command and control military forces and to sentence military personnel who contravene the Military Discipline Code (Military Leadership, 1995:1.18; Department of Defence Integrated Philosophy on Leadership, Command, Management and Organisational Culture, 1997:3-4; Ricketts, 1997:25-27; 5.4.4).

It could be deducted that disadvantaged employees will contribute toward increased productivity when they are trained and qualified. They should therefore be optimally utilised to increase their performance. The past social imbalances are the cause of the condition of the disadvantaged employees. The effect of social imbalances on the disadvantaged employees is discussed below.

## **8.6 SOCIAL IMBALANCES**

Under apartheid, the South African Parliament legislated laws that created racial and social differences between blacks and whites. Blacks were compelled to reside in certain areas and were allowed access to certain industries and careers. This economically affected the work life of the disadvantaged labour force. Organisations focused on utilising, training and developing whites and were apathetic toward blacks (1.2; 6.2).

As a result, the South African Defence Force had instituted racial and social discriminatory policies and practices that disadvantaged blacks and benefited whites. These policies prevented the South African Defence Force from optimally utilising its entire workforce to increase productivity. Whites were trained in all functional disciplines, while blacks were trained in certain common disciplines (infantry, ordinance and personnel). Whites were appointed as managers, supervisors and clerks, while the

common, menial work was assigned to blacks. This enabled whites to increase their performance and to distinguish themselves from disadvantaged employees. Therefore, the difference between blacks and whites was the privileges and achievements which they had accomplished. Blacks were only allowed to carry weapons after nineteen (19) years of service and were then subsequently deployed to the operational area (*Defence Act, 1912 Article 7*; South Africa National Defence Force Order/C PERS/1/98:A.1; 6.2).

Gender discrimination is a common practice in the military because of the history and nature of the South Africa National Defence Force. Women were only promoted to the general cadre after the integration into the South Africa National Defence Force in 1994. There are a few women generals, the majority of whom are whites. Gender discrimination is ingrained in the political, economic and social spheres of society and practised in all organisations. Women are discriminated against because they work in a corporate world that has been created by white men. They are rated lower in a male-dominated environment, as is the case for men working in a female-dominated environment. Management is thus reluctant to invest (train and develop) in women, since they are not as easily transferable because of child rearing responsibilities and the jobs of their spouses. Women's private lives are scrutinised when their career prospects are reviewed and promotion considered, because they may hold senior and top management positions that could be filled by men. This component of the workforce should be trained, utilised and motivated, so that they can bring another managerial dimensions to the organisation (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:418-421; Block, 1992:9; Cascio, 1991:97; Department of Defence Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action Policy, 1997:6-8; Katz, 1997:455-457; 6.2).

Affirmative action is a prerequisite for managing a diverse workforce who has been disadvantaged and discriminated against. Workforce diversity recognises the individual's potential, abilities, skills,



competencies, experiences, personalities and optimally utilises the diversity to increase productivity. It is a human resource succession planning tool that provides a pool of trained and qualified employees who can be used to fill human resource requirements. It is a human resource development tool that is designed to educate, train and develop the disadvantaged employees, in order to qualify them for appropriate appointments in the organisation (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:446, 451; Human, 1993:11-12; White Paper on Affirmative Action in Public Service, 1998:13; 2.4; 3.5; 6.3).

Affirmative action is a human resource utilisation tool used for the optimal utilisation and accommodation of the disadvantaged employees who have been deprived and denied corporate advancement. It is a remedial function that addresses racial and social imbalances, and does not lower work standards nor threaten the career aspirations of current incumbents. It is a management tool that establishes an organisational culture where employees are equal and enjoy the same opportunities. Senior and top line managers are responsible for the effective execution of affirmative action programmes at the various hierarchical levels because they manage, command and control the organisation's resources. They are thus responsible for the achievement of organisational goals and objectives and for motivating, training and developing the diverse workforce (Beardwell and Holden, 2001:446, 451; Human, 1993:11-12; White Paper on Affirmative Action in Public Service, 1998:13; 2.4; 3.5; 6.3).

In order to address the racial and social imbalances requires commitment from all stakeholders, including the government, management and the workforce. The South African government has promulgated several pieces of legislation to regulate the institution of affirmative action and equal employment opportunities. The South African National Defence Force has introduced special management programmes to address the social imbalances. The suffixes of disadvantage Statutory Force members

were changed from Permanent Africans (PB) and Permanent Coloureds (PC) to be the same as whites namely, that of Permanent European (PE). Disadvantaged Non-Statutory Force employees were empowered (fast-tracking and mentorship), so that they can be appointed to senior management positions. Affirmative action in the South African National Defence Force failed: (1) to affirm black disadvantaged Statutory Force employees; (2) to develop the full potential of disadvantaged lower rank employees; (3) to optimally utilise disadvantaged employees, which in turn influenced their performance and productivity. Figure 6.2 proposed that managing diversity can be used to effectively manage a diverse workforce. Mentorship failed during the initial implementation therefore, Statutory Force employees did not served as mentors to the Non-Statutory Force employees (Leukes, 2002; Links, 2001; White Paper on National Defence, 1996:36; 3.5; 6.2).

Affirmative action in the South African National Defence Force was not implemented appropriately because the prescribed goals per race groups have not been achieved. The Asians, coloureds and whites are over-represented, while the Africans are under-represented regarding the total percentages on affirmative action. The whites are in the majority in the ranks of captain to major general and staff sergeant to warrant officer class 1. They are over-represented in the PSAP posts from Level 6 up to chief director's level. Women are still under-represented. Training was used as a tool to address affirmative action; instead it benefitted the whites, who are in the majority in the officers ranks. The special programmes (fast-tracking and mentoring) did not deliver according to expectation. The career planning and career management should have contributed to fast-tracking and the success of affirmative action, but could not because it is decentralised, to the arms of services. Therefore, it does not take into account the bigger picture of the South African National Defence Force. The Non-Statutory Forces benefit more than historically disadvantaged Statutory Forces because they have not been affirmed (South African National Defence Force/C Pers/1/ 02.7-8; Leukes, 2002; 6.3).

The next section is a summary of deductions.

## 8.7 SUMMARY OF DEDUCTIONS

The previous sections discussed in detail the findings of the dissertation. This section gives a summary of the findings relating to, productivity, human resource management, social imbalances, motivation and organisational culture.

### 8.7.1 Productivity

Increased productivity is expressed as: 
$$\frac{\text{Output: Result Achieved}}{\text{Input: Resources Consumed}}$$

Input resources are physical and human resource variables, which managers manage and control to improve the quality of products and to services, and increase competitiveness, performance, profit and productivity. Increased productivity also improves the social and economic status of all stakeholders, and improves the standard of living and quality of life. The outcome depends on the extent to which managers are willing to commit these resources and to motivate, train and develop the diverse workforce. The employees' abilities, competencies and skills improve their efficiency, effectiveness and increase their performance and productivity (3.4; 3.5; 7.3).

Increased productivity in the South African National Defence Force is expressed as: input, such as investing in human resources (training, developing and motivating) and capital investment in armament, equipment and technology, which is subject to budget constraints. The multi-billion arms procurement deal provides the South African National Defence Force with the resources (armament, equipment,

material and technical) to be an effective military force. It needs to train the workforce to effectively operate the sophisticated armament. Output is the effective achievement of its mandate, military operations and service to communities. This will improve as employees become qualified, competent and professional, and sophisticated armament, equipment and technology are acquired. An imbalance in input results in an ineffective output. This can only be changed when the input is increased and balanced. The resources affect four of the eight principles of warfare that are directly related to productivity: economy of effort, concentration of effort, power and flexibility. Table 8.1 indicates the factors influencing productivity directly, some of these factors are operational and some are experiencing operational challenges and others need management's attention (2.3; 2.4).

### **8.7.2 Human Resource Management**

The flex-management model (see Figure 3.1) allows managers to develop the abilities, skills and competencies and to optimally utilise a diverse workforce. The diverse workforce is more creative, productive and produce better goods and services, because they are able to draw from a wide spectrum of abilities, skills, experiences, qualifications, personalities and competencies. The model treats employees as individuals with unique desires, needs and aspirations (3.5; 7.3.3).

Management should capitalise on the skills and competencies of the diverse workforce. More disadvantaged employees should be appointed to senior and top management positions as they become qualified. The South African National Defence Force has the human resource capacity to draw from a wide spectrum of experiences, competencies, interests, intelligence and personalities to increase productivity. Before human resources can be effective, in being optimally utilised, they should be trained and developed as discussed below (3.4; 7.3).



The government's voluntary severance packages reduced the workforce of the South African National Defence Force. It also allowed thousands of professional Statutory Force employees to resign from the South African National Defence Force. The expertise and experience of those who resigned could not be used to mentor the Non-Statutory Force employees. Simultaneously, the leadership of the former South African Defence Force continued to manage the South African National Defence Force (1.2; 7.4; 7.5.3; 8.3). Figure 7.11A indicates that whites are managing the South African National Defence Force because blacks are in the majority in the lower ranks (private to sergeant and lieutenant), while whites are in the majority in the higher ranks (captain to major general and staff sergeant to warrant officer class 1) (7.3; 7.4).

Management is responsible for the management of the diverse workforce of the South African National Defence Force, which consists of different races, ethnicities, genders, traditions, values, norms, personalities, experiences, competencies, interests, ambitions and qualifications. Human resources are the major resource of the South African National Defence Force that affects increased productivity. Human resources are actively involved in the transformation of the production processes in increasing the quality of goods and services. Human resource succession planning became more difficult with the high labour turnover (7.3; 7.4).

Human resource planning recruits and attracts the best candidates and allows management to select and appoint the most competent employees to appropriate positions. Selection allows for a "perfect match" between employees' abilities and competencies and job requirements. The South African National Defence Force has changed its selection criteria to accommodate the disadvantaged employees. It uses assessment centres to assess senior officers for appointment to senior and top management positions (7.3.1).

Staffing boards function independently of the respective hierarchical levels of the South African National Defence Force. No central body was established to monitor and control the staffing processes to ensure representation at all hierarchical levels. Staffing benefited Statutory Force employees who have the qualification, competencies and experiences. The Flexible Service System enables the South African National Defence Force to provide a workforce that meets its operational requirements. Its management process allows for centralised control and decentralised participation (7.3; 7.3.3).

The workforce of the South African National Defence Force is constantly involved in training and development. It has instituted special programmes (fast-tracking and mentorship) to facilitate the empowerment, training and development of the Non-Statutory Force employees. Employees are trained in their functional discipline to keep abreast of technological advancement in the armament and related industries. Training reduces the development and performance gap that exists between the disadvantaged and privileged employees. It restores the social and economic status of disadvantaged employees, and enables them to favourably compete with their white counterparts in the labour market. It increases employees' performance and enhances productivity. Leaders and managers should therefore be developed (management development) to enable them to effectively manage the South African National Defence Force's resources, deal with its challenges and ensure the achievement of increased performance and productivity (3.5; 7.3.2).

Mentorship reduces the transitional period between training and actual work performance. It reduces labour turnover and increases employees' commitment. The Competency Achievement model (see Figure 7.9) enables the South African National Defence Force to establish a culture of learning where employees can improve their military and academic qualifications. It also allows employees to achieve self-actualisation and improve their social and economic status, which was prohibited by social

discrimination (3.4; 7.3.2). Management is not only responsible for effectively managing the diverse workforce but also for motivating them.

### **8.7.3 Motivation**

Motivation is the inner quality that encourages and stimulates employees to achieve self-actualisation. It is a managerial tool used to motivate employees to increase their performance, productivity and to accomplish organisational goals and objectives. Various motivational techniques should be used for the motivation of a diverse workforce because of their different skills, abilities, competencies and personalities (4.4; 4.5; 4.6).

Performance appraisal committees should be representative of race and gender. Managers should objectively use their dual role as judge and counsellor to benefit both employees and organisation. Negative performance appraisal influences the performance of the relevant employees and may affect the attitude and performance of co-employees. The South African National Defence Force uses intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to motivate its workforce. It uses performance appraisal as a means to determine rewards. Performance appraisals in the South African National Defence Force take place quarterly. The assessment is done by the immediate supervisor. Management is not only responsible for the motivation of the workforce, but also for the establishment of an organisational culture that enhances the motivation of the workforce (4.7; 4.8; 4.10).

### **8.7.4 Organisational Culture**

Culture is a learnt product of the group experience, a reflection of the organisation's philosophy, policies

and practices and it is deeply embedded in the organisation's culture, values and beliefs. Culture is determined by top executives and permeates the organisation from the top to lowest hierarchical level (5.2; 7.5).

The South African National Defence Force consists of subcultures (arms of service and functional disciplines), which have their unique traditions, values and norms. The employee is the central focus of the cultural sphere (see Figure 7.4) and is indoctrinated with military traditions from the South African National Defence Force, arms of service and functional discipline. The military culture becomes a lifestyle that distinguishes military personnel from civilians. Therefore, management fills senior positions by internal appointment to ensure that the culture will be continued. The South African National Defence Force is in the process of establishing a culture that will satisfy the needs, desires and aspirations of the diverse workforce. To achieve this requires transformational, transactional, and instrumental leadership, which is critically needed in the South African National Defence Force. Corporate and military leadership share the common aim of influencing people, but have distinct differences. Military leaders have legitimate power to command and control military forces and to sentence military personnel who contravene the Military Discipline Code (5.2; 5.3; 5.4; 7.5).

#### **8.7.5 Social Imbalances**

Social discrimination deprived blacks of training and development opportunities, optimal utilisation, self-actualisation and corporate advancement. The competencies and skills of whites were developed and optimally utilised, while blacks were under-developed and under-utilised. Racial discrimination deprived blacks from making a meaningful contribution toward productivity. Gender discrimination prevented women from achieving self-actualisation and corporate advancement (1.2; 6.2).



Affirmative action intends to accommodate disadvantaged employees by providing them with special opportunities to achieve what they had been deprived of and disadvantaged employees should as a result be affirmed and given equal employment opportunities. Affirmative action is a process and it will take years to undo past social imbalances. According to Figure 6.4A, affirmative action in the South African National Defence Force was not implemented appropriately because the prescribed goals per race groups have not been achieved. The Asians, coloureds and whites are over-represented, while the Africans are under-represented regarding the total percentages on affirmative action. The whites are in the majority in the ranks of captain to major general and staff sergeant to warrant officer class 1. They are over-represented in the PSAP posts from Level 6 up to chief director's level. Women are still under-represented. Affirmative action is a human resources tool with which to educate, train, develop and utilise disadvantaged employees, to optimally utilise the diverse workforce and to establish a pool of qualified employees who can be used to fill human resource requirements. The South African National Defence Force has affirmed Non-Statutory Force employees, but has omitted to affirm historically disadvantaged Statutory Force employees. The entire workforce should be motivated to maintain a positive attitude and not allow social imbalances to influence their performance and productivity (6.3; 8.3).

## **8.8 CONCLUSION**

The study reveals the interdependence between the dependent and independent variables (physical and human resource). It indicates that changes in the independent variables will affect the outcome of the dependent variable.

The study emphasises that the success of managing the South African National Defence Force toward

productivity depends on the effective management of the sum of its physical and human resources. This requires professional leaders, managers and a committed, trained, competent and professional workforce. It needs an organisational culture and work environment that are conducive to the improvement of the quality of work life, the increase of employees' performance and the enhancement of productivity.

Increased productivity benefits all stakeholders. The government receives revenue to provide social services and improve the standard of living. Organisations receive profits to expand their capital investment. They provide better goods and services and meet the needs and wants of customers. The workforce receives increased remuneration, rewards, promotion and improves their social status and quality of life. Employees use their innovation and creative skills to produce better goods and services, which satisfy customers' needs and provides them with more options to choose from. Effective human resource practices, regulations, procedures, policies and systems depend on effective human resource management and motivation and a enabling organisational culture. This will help employees to increase their performance, which enhances productivity.

The next chapter discusses the recommendations of the dissertation.

## CHAPTER 9

### RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 9.1 INTRODUCTION

This study is divided into three parts: the theoretical analysis, operationalisation and findings, recommendations and conclusion. The first part of the dissertation, namely Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5 discussed the theoretical analysis, which focused on productivity, human resource management, motivation and organisational culture respectively.

The second part of the dissertation, namely Chapters 6 and 7 dealt with the operationalisation of the South African National Defence Force. Chapter 6 explored how social imbalances disadvantaged blacks in terms of development, utilisation and corporate advancement, which in turn influenced their performance and productivity. Chapter 7 focused on how the interaction and interdependence between human resource planning, human resource development and managing diversity enabled the South African National Defence Force to effectively managed its human resources.

The third part of the dissertation discussed the findings, recommendations and conclusion. Chapter 8 presented the findings of the study, along with the associated causes that need to be remedied to bring about the desired results. This chapter presents recommendations that are considered valid in the light of the deduced evidence, rather than irrefutable truth. They are based on the insights gained during the research. The study endeavours to make a contribution to the discipline of management; specifically by researching the process of managing the South African National Defence Force towards productivity

from a human resource management perspective.

## 9.2 PRODUCTIVITY

Managing the South African National Defence Force towards productivity from a human resource management perspective requires leaders and managers to manage the sum of resources (physical and human resource variables) (see Figures 1.3, 2.3 and 8.3) that influence productivity (2.3; 2.4; 7.6).

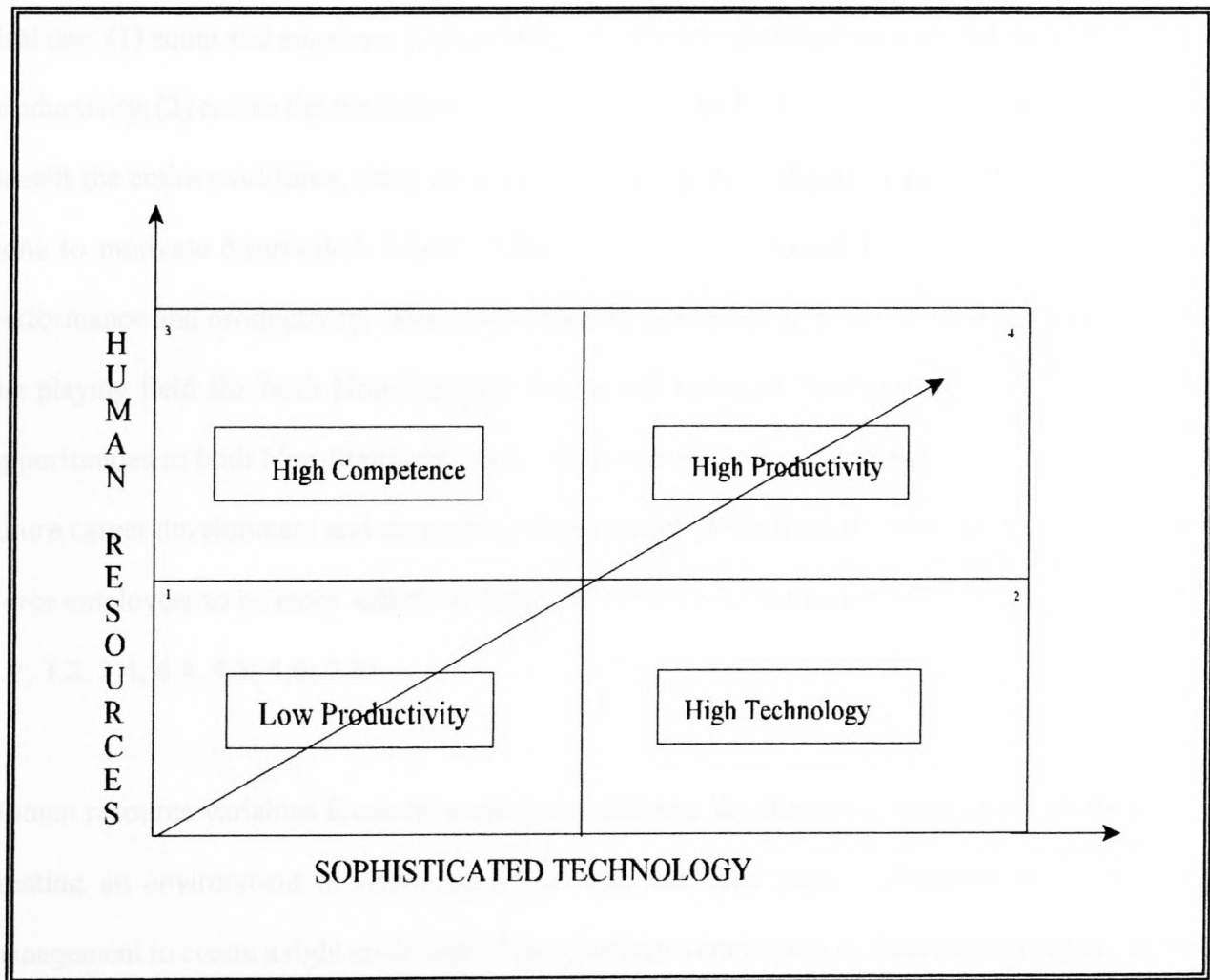
The multi-billion arms procurement deal will provide the South African National Defence Force with the needed sophisticated armament, equipment, material and technology to be an effective military force. These resources are needed to increase the employees' performance, which enhances productivity. An imbalance of input resources influences the outcome of productivity. Therefore, the workforce should be trained, developed, motivated and given the needed armament, equipment and technology (see Figure 9.2) to increase their performance, which enhances productivity (2.4; 3.5; 7.3.2; 7.3.3).

Figure 9.1 proposes two crucial elements (physical and human resource variables) that are necessary to increase productivity in the South African National Defence Force. Low productivity indicates that employees have not sufficiently been trained to increase their performance. They lack the necessary sophisticated technology to enhance their performance. The use of high technology means that employees have been trained to use sophisticated technology. It means that a right environment has been created to effectively manage and motivate employees. High competence means that employees are empowered to optimally utilise their potential and sophisticated technology to increase their performance and productivity. High competence and sophisticated technology are elements that are needed to increase employees' performance and productivity. Human resource variables increase the competencies



FIGURE 9.1: SOPHISTICATED TECHNOLOGY AND HUMAN VARIABLES INCREASE  
PRODUCTIVITY

SOURCE: Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005



and skills of employees, while sophisticated technology, the force multiplier enhances employees' performance and productivity.

Physical resources (arms procurement) provide employees with the necessary tools and equipment (hardware and software) to increase their performance. The Figure proposes that the arms procurement deal can: (1) equip and empower the workforce to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity; (2) enable the workforce to keep abreast of technological advancement; (3) challenge and benefit the entire workforce; since affirmative action benefited disadvantaged blacks and nothing was done to motivate disgruntled Asians, coloureds and whites to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity. The new armament and technology can be used to motivate and level the playing field for both Non-Statutory Force and Statutory Force employees; (4) provide equal opportunities to both Non-Statutory Force and Statutory Force employees; (5) be used to determine future career development and corporate advancement; (6) be used to motivate disgruntled Statutory Force employees to be more effective (Robbins, 1990:32-35; Dressler, 1992:10; Weisbord, 1991:90; 2.4; 3.2; 3.4; 4.4; 4.5; 4.6; 5.3).

Human resource variables focus on employees' training, development, motivation, performance and creating an environment in which these activities can take place. Organisational culture allows management to create a right environment that motivates employees to achieve both organisational and individual goals. The right environment allows management to equip and empower employees by training and developing their abilities, competencies and skills. Management motivates employees to change their behaviour and to achieve self-actualisation and organisational goals. Managing diversity allows management to utilise the full potential of the entire workforce. It also allows management to deal with the negative consequences of affirmative action and to treat all employees equally and fairly.

As employees are trained in arms procurement and supported by human resource variables they are able to increase their performance, which enhances productivity. Affirmative action supported disadvantaged employees by training, promoting and appointing them in appropriate positions. The Figure shows that the organisation's resources are available to all employees, thus levelling the playing field for the entire workforce to develop their potential and achieve self-actualisation. It motivates employees to be responsible and determine their career development and corporate advancement, which will stimulate them to increase their performance and productivity (Robbins, 1990:32-35; Dressler, 1992:10; Weisbord, 1991:90; 2.4; 3.2; 3.4; 4.4; 4.5; 4.6; 5.3).

The necessity for productivity should permeate the entire organisation from the top downwards. The South African National Defence Force needs to take a holistic approach to productivity because the military culture is a lifestyle that is inculcated into the employees. The military culture affects the employees' behaviour, performance and response to productivity. Therefore, productivity should be an integral part of the total Strategic Planning Process, because it affects management's attitude in managing the organisation's resources. It should be one of the mission success factors, which influence the strategic formulation and force design (2.4; 7.2).

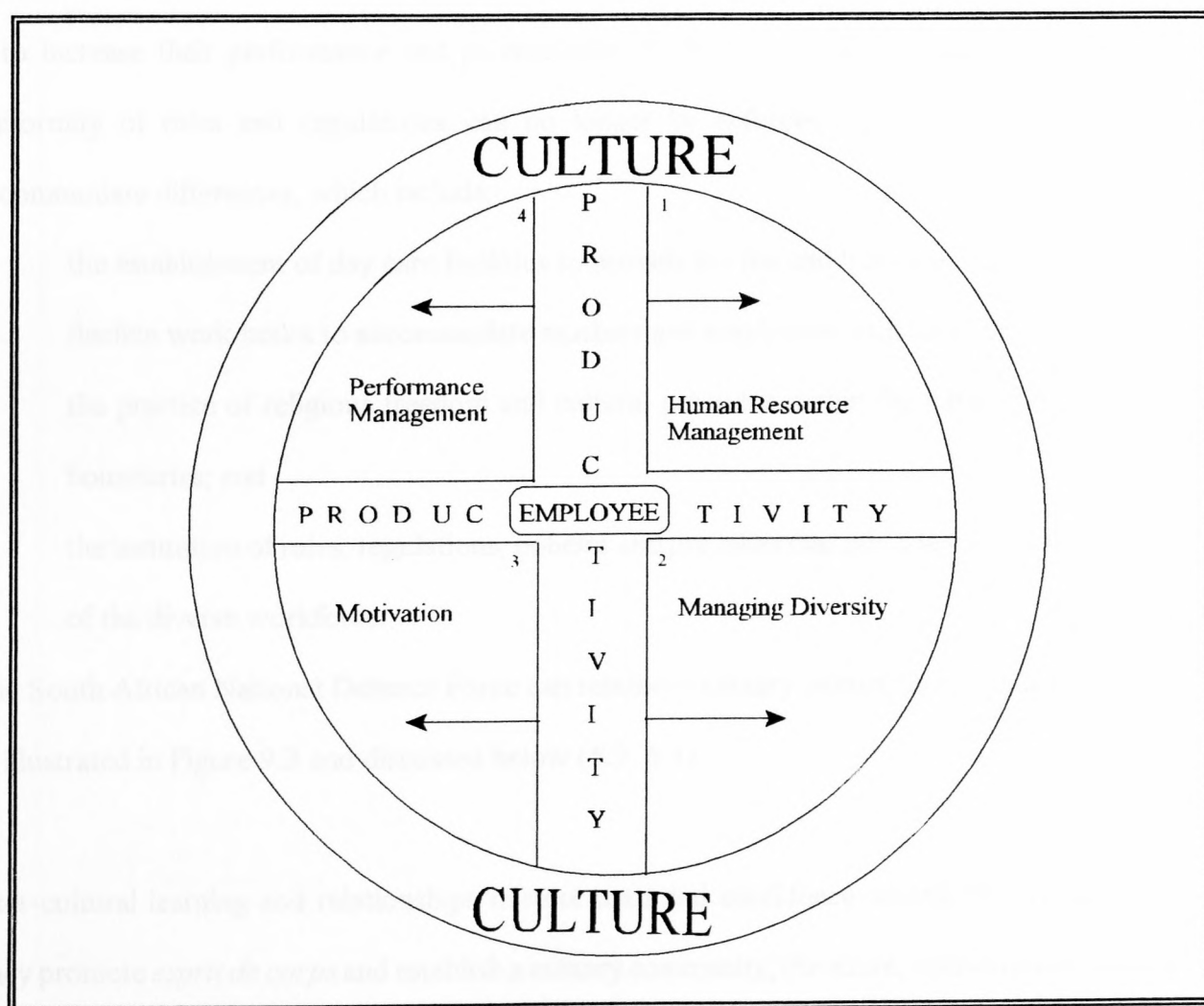
Human resources play a crucial role in influencing the outcome of productivity managers should therefore create a right atmosphere that motivates employees to increase their performance and productivity. The next section discusses organisational culture and how it influences productivity.

### **9.3 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

Figure 9.2 proposes a human resource management model to increase productivity from a human

FIGURE 9.2: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT MODEL

SOURCE: ADAPTED FROM JAMIESON AND O'MARE (1991:37)





resource management perspective in the South African National Defence Force. The circle and points 1, 2 and 3 are discussed under the appropriate headings. Points 4 is alluded to in 9.4.

Management should use organisational policies, procedures, practices, systems and structures that are deeply embedded in the organisation's culture (values, norms and beliefs) to create a right atmosphere. These factors influence the behaviour of employees and motivate them to develop their potential and use it to increase their performance and productivity. A diverse workforce means that conformity to uniformity of rules and regulations can no longer be enforced. Provision should be made to accommodate differences, which include:

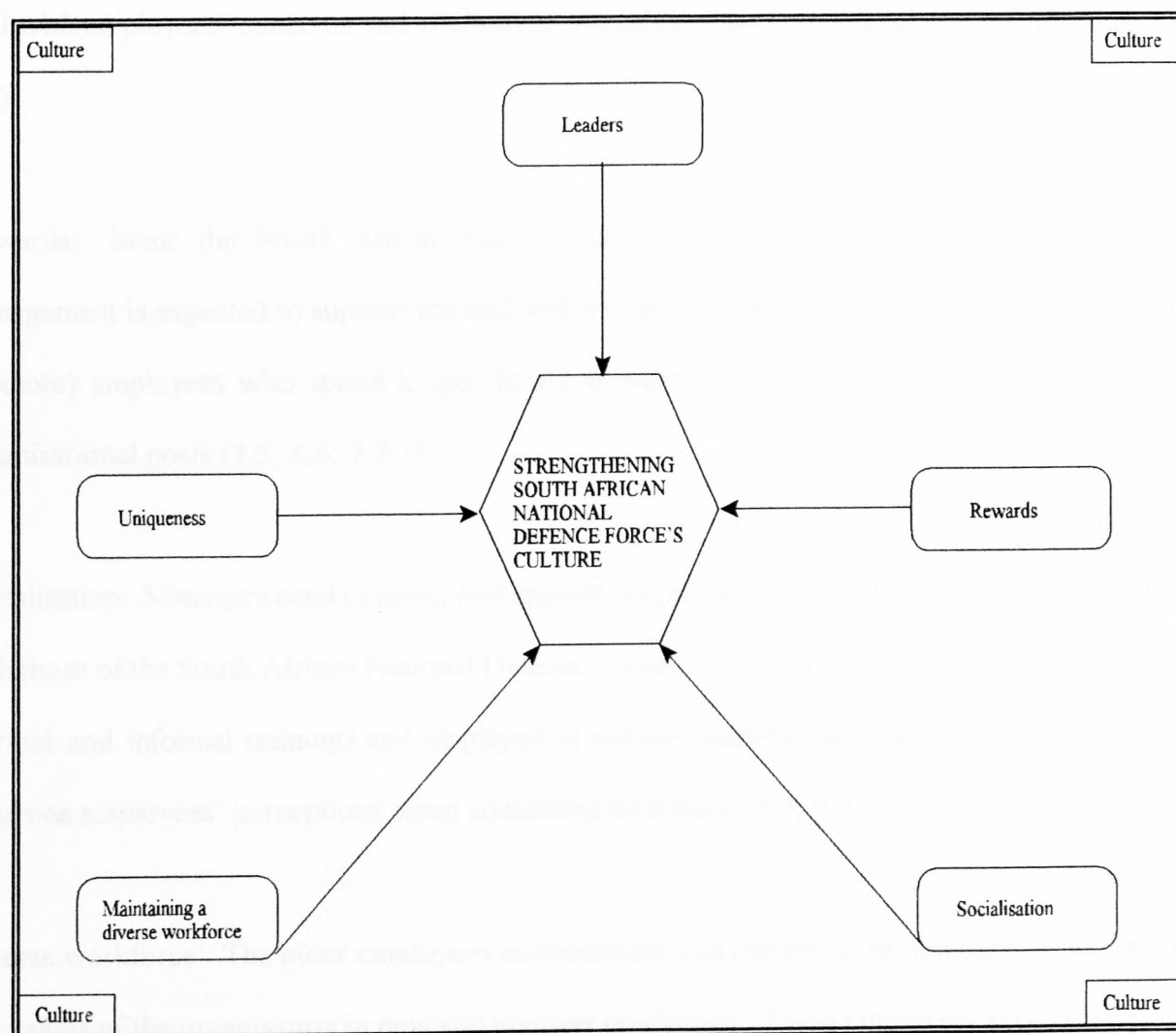
- the establishment of day care facilities to provide for the children of employees;
- flexible work hours to accommodate mothers and employees with disabilities;
- the practice of religious freedom and cultural practices within the parameters of the military boundaries; and
- the institution of rules, regulations, policies and practices that provide for the needs and desires of the diverse workforce.

The South African National Defence Force can reinforce military culture by implementing the factors as illustrated in Figure 9.3 and discussed below (5.3; 6.4).

Inter-cultural learning and relationships nurture trust and confidence among the diverse workforce. They promote *esprit de corps* and establish a military community; therefore, inter-cultural learning needs to be part of the cultural orientation and should include anthropology and sociology of the different race groups. This promotes understanding of cultural diversity and provides opportunities for considering the ethnocentrism of the different race groups. Leaders and managers need to reach consensus on cultural issues, sentiments and beliefs and they need to model exemplary behaviour for their subordinates

FIGURE 9.3: STRENGTHENING THE MILITARY CULTURE

SOURCE: ADAPTED FROM McSHANE AND VON GLINOW (2000:347)



(3.5; 6.4).

**Leaders:** Leaders manage the resources of the South African National Defence Force and they should therefore communicate and act in accordance with their vision, support gender equality and promote women to senior and top management positions. Leaders should be visible and available to listen to and deal with employees' concerns and challenges and utilise their competencies and skills (3.3; 3.4; 5.4; 6.4).

**Rewards:** Since the South African National Defence Force operates in a paternalistic culture, management is expected to support the well-being of employees. Management should reward (bonus, promote) employees who spend longer hours at work exerting their effort to effectively achieve organisational goals (3.5; 4.6; 7.3.3).

**Socialisation:** Managers need to select and appoint employees whose values and norms are compatible with those of the South African National Defence Force. The organisation's culture needs to be learnt (formal and informal training) and displayed at military activities and ceremonies. Leaders should influence employees' perceptions when socialising with them (5.3; 6.4).

**Diverse workforce:** The older employees communicate and reinforce the dominant beliefs, traditions and values of the organisation in new and younger employees. These employees should be retained to foster organisational culture and create a sense of stability. Their knowledge should become corporate intelligence by transforming it into organisational systems. A stable, diverse workforce is needed to ensure the existence of the military culture, values and traditions (1.2; 3.5; 7.3.3).

Uniqueness: The military culture should accommodate society's values, because the workforce should adhere to the national culture. Cultural differences should be used to serve the different communities and unite the diverse workforce, who needs to be encouraged to participate in cultural festivities and ceremonies (5.3; 6.4).

The human resource variables should play a crucial role in the recruitment, selection, training, development and motivation of the diverse workforce, because it allows the South African National Defence Force to appoint the right individual in the right position. This allows employees to optimally use their potential for increasing their performance and productivity. The next section focuses on human resource management and its effect on productivity.

#### **9.4 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

Figure 9.2 proposes a human resource management model that effectively manage people to increase their performance and productivity. The model illustrates employees as the focal point of productivity. It focuses on the individual employee's training, development, utilisation and aids management to capitalise on employees' potential. It ensures the implementation of management policies and practices that treat all employees equally however, it provides additional support systems and programmes to accommodate the training and development of disadvantaged employees. The model allows for the appointment of the most competent employees to the most appropriate positions and for rewarding them according to their performance. The model allows management to create a right atmosphere that influences the behaviour of employees and motivates them to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity. It allows employees to develop and progress according to their abilities to achieve self-actualisation. It enables management to create a right atmosphere that influences the



behaviour of employees and motivates them to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity. Employees are different and have different competencies, skills and abilities that should be developed and utilised to achieve the goals and objectives of the South African National Defence Force (2.4; 3.2; 3.4; 3.5; 4.4; 4.5; 4.6; 4.7; 7.3; 7.3.2; 7.3.3).

Managers should effectively manage people and encourage them to play an active role in increasing productivity. Increased productivity can become a reality when both supervisors and subordinates are committed to increase their performance and the effective utilisation of the factors that influence productivity as illustrated in Figures 2.3, 3.3 and 9.2 (2.3, 3.3; 9.2).

Human resource planning should be done in consultation with lower and higher headquarters and consensus should be reached regarding the immediate and future utilisation of employees. The data should be centralised at the human resource division, Chief of Staff Personnel, at Defence Headquarters. The information should be accessible to micro unit commanders when doing human resource planning and career discussions with their employees. This will make succession planning more meaningful, and avoid the confusion of struggling to find suitable replacements to fill vacant positions that are caused by unexpected death, transfers or resignations (3.2; 3.3; 7.3).

Special training and development programmes to assist the development of disadvantaged employees should be implemented. These programmes should continue until the disadvantaged employees are qualified and competent to perform their job. They should also be reviewed and adjusted periodically to keep abreast of the latest functional developments. Junior employees with potential should be identified, trained, developed and given exposure to practice their unique abilities under professional supervision (3.4; 7.3.2).

Assessment centres should be centralised under the jurisdiction of Chief of Staff Personnel at Defence Headquarters. It should make provision for the unique development of each arm of service, in order to satisfy their human resource requirements. It should develop officers' competencies and abilities and prepare leaders for senior and top management appointments. It should be used to groom and develop junior officers who possess the potential to become outstanding leaders (3.4; 7.3.2).

The appointment of Non-Statutory Force employees to hierarchical positions should be accompanied by the appointment of competent mentors, who are co-responsible for the performance of protégés. Mentorship should be a mentor-protégé relationship, which should include interaction, socialisation, training, coaching, motivating and inter-cultural learning. Mentors should ensure that protégés are competent to perform their job (3.4; 3.5; 7.3).

The training and development of disadvantaged employees can be enhanced by mentorship, coaching, empowerment and fast-tracking. Statutory Force and Non-Statutory Force employees should be trained together. This will assist the learning process and encourage unity and cultural interaction (3.4; 7.3.2).

Learning should become a way of life and employees should be motivated to develop their abilities, skills and competencies, because training narrows the development and performance gaps that exist between white and black employees. Training enables employees to increase their competencies, skills, qualifications and abilities and increases their performance and enhances productivity. It qualifies employees to operate sophisticated armament, equipment and advanced technology, which increases their efficiency and effectiveness. Training and development are means to eradicate the social imbalances of the past, because they increase employees' value and marketability. Inter-cultural learning should be part of the training curriculum and should include anthropology and sociology of the different

race groups (3.4; 7.3; 7.3.2).

The duration of military courses should be shorter, to enable students (employees) to apply the knowledge gained in the work situation. It allows employees to master certain theories before advancing to more complex theories and gives them opportunities to examine the effectiveness of systems, processes and practices. It confirms the assimilation and the application of knowledge and assesses the effectiveness of training. Training that does not empower employees with the appropriate competencies and skills to increase their performance to enhance productivity, should be redesigned, adapted and adjusted according to the needs of the employees (3.4; 7.3.2).

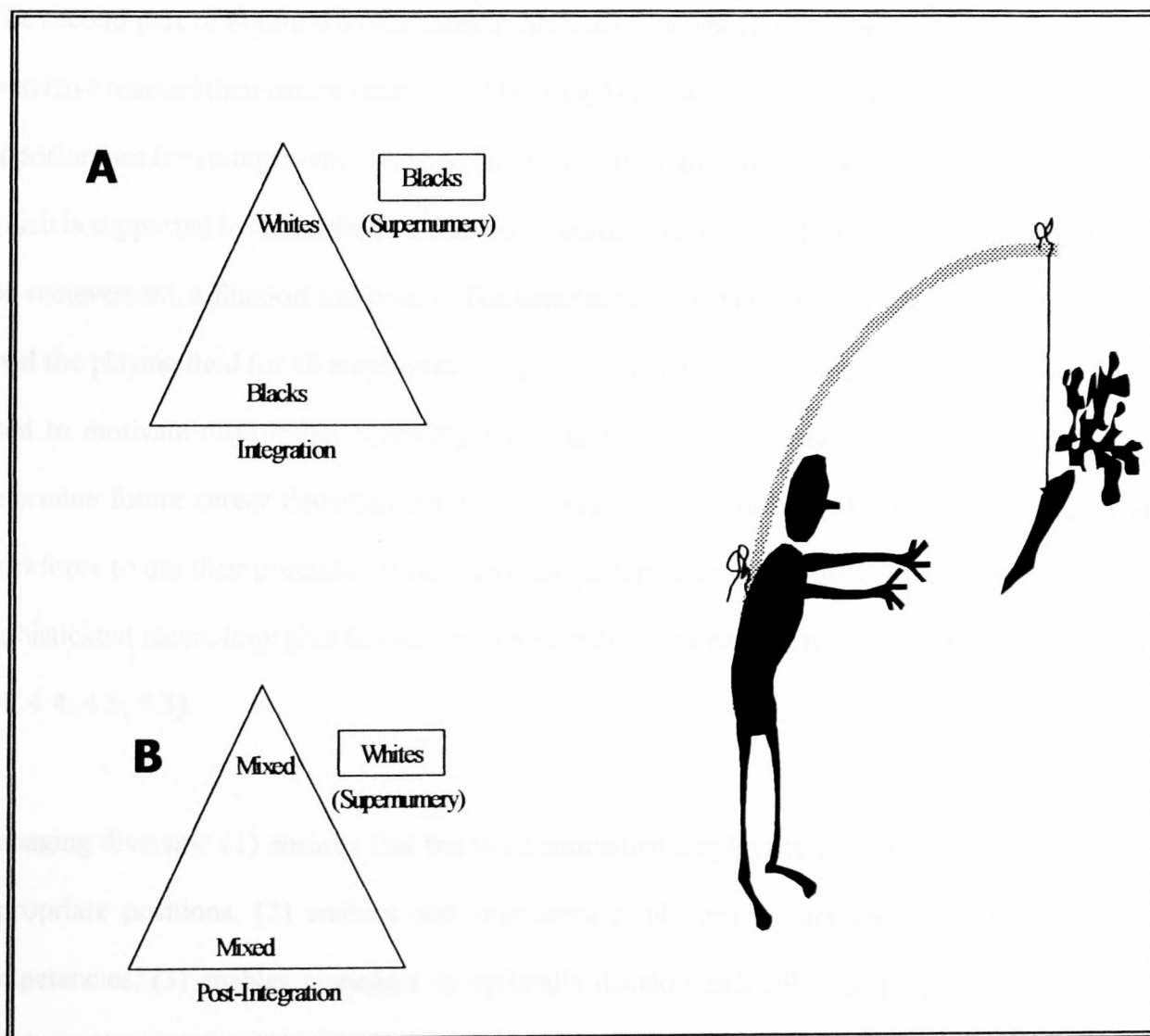
To manage the diverse workforce requires leaders and managers who are committed to optimally develop and utilise each individual according to his or her potential. This can be done by managing diversity, discussed in the next section.

## **9.5 MANAGING DIVERSITY**

The development of efficient employees and an effective South African National Defence Force is a process that takes time. The process can be enhanced by managing diversity as depicted in Figure 9.4. The first part of Figure 9.4 shows that during the integration whites were incumbents in hierarchical posts, while Non-Statutory Force employees were incumbents in supernumerary posts. Affirmative action was implemented to manage the situation. Disadvantaged women and Non-Statutory Force employees were affirmed and special training programmes were instituted to fast-track these employees. Affirmative action failed: (1) to give command and control of the South African National Defence Force to Non-Statutory Force employees; (2) to increase the South African National Defence Force's

FIGURE 9.4: MANAGING DIVERSITY

SOURCE: Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005





productivity and effectiveness; (3) to motivate Non-Statutory Force employees, particularly those in lower ranks, to increase their performance and productivity; (4) to motivated disgruntled Statutory Force employees. White Statutory Force employees continued to control and manage the South African National Defence Force (3.2; 3.4; 4.4, 4.5, 4.6; 5.3; 6.2; 6.3).

The second part of Figure 9.4 illustrates a solution to the above situation. Statutory Force employees who have reached their career peak should be placed in supernumerary posts. This creates advancement opportunities for younger employees and motivates them to strive for promotion and self-actualisation, which is supported by McClelland's Theory of learned Needs, which states that employees have needs for achievement, affiliation and power. The sophisticated technology: (1) can be used to motivate and level the playing field for all employees; (2) provides equal opportunities to all employees; (3) can be used to motivate disgruntled Statutory Force employees to be more effective; (4) can be used to determine future career development and corporate advancement; (5) can equip and empower the workforce to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity. The figure shows that sophisticated technology plus human resource variables are needed to increase productivity (2.4; 3.2; 3.4; 4.4, 4.5, 5.3).

Managing diversity: (1) ensures that the most competent employees should be appointed to the most appropriate positions; (2) enables and empowers employees to increase their abilities, skills and competencies; (3) enables managers to optimally develop and utilise employees according to their abilities and competencies. Managing diversity allows managers to: (1) encourage employees to set challenging yet achievable goals; (2) stimulate employees to increase their competencies and skills; (3) use their potential to increase their performance and productivity; (4) to effectively manage Statutory Force and Non-Statutory Force employees. Managing diversity ensures that the staffing of the new

organisation structures take place without having to sacrifice productivity (2.4; 3.2; 3.3; 3.4; 3.5; 7.3).

The staffing of the new organisation structures of the South African National Defence Force should take place in two phases described below. Phase one: the posts should be divided per management level into top, senior, middle and junior. They should then be divided into gender and race. The next step is to advertise per management category, gender and race. Phase two includes the matching of incumbents to the most appropriate positions. A computer system should be used to retrieve career information of all employees, includes: merits, military courses completed, experiences, qualifications, skills, abilities, competencies, personalities and performance. The most competent candidates should then be appointed. To determine the incumbent's deficiencies, management needs to compare the incumbent's competencies, skills and abilities with the post requirements and post profile. Interviews should be conducted with the incumbents to discuss their career development, training and mentorship (3.4; 3.5; 7.3).

The staffing process should be centrally controlled by Chief of Staff Personnel, at Defence Headquarters, and decentralised to the arms of service. Staffing Boards should be representative in terms of race and gender. In cases where certain racial groups are not qualified and ready to accept responsibility for the assigned position, the position should be temporarily filled by a qualified employee from the same or another race and gender. This arrangement will continue until the prospective incumbent is qualified to assume responsibility for the position. The relevant employees need to be informed in writing with regard to the decision. Staffing should not only consider the competencies, skills and abilities of employees, but also take cognisance of the employees' social (life skills) experiences. The best qualified candidates should be appointed, even if he or she does not comply with all the post requirements. For years the privileged employees had the advantage to qualify themselves, while the disadvantaged

employees did not have such opportunities. The disadvantaged Statutory Force employees need to be affirmed during the staffing process, so that all employees can enjoy equal opportunities (3.4; 3.5; 7.3):

Phase one	Phase two
Step 1: division of management posts per management level.	Step 1: computer printout of candidates' skills, qualifications, competencies and abilities.
Step 2: division of posts per race and gender.	Step 2: staffing boards appoint most competent candidates to appropriate positions.
Step 3: advertisement of posts per management category, race and gender.	Step 3: career interview with candidates.
Step 4: employees apply for positions according to categories that are applicable to them.	Step 4: determination of employees' deficiencies.
	Step 5: nominate employees for military courses and academic training.
	Step 6: appointment of mentors to protégés.
	Step 7: special programmes for disadvantaged employees.
	Step 8: evaluation of progress.
	Step 9: additional training.
	Step 10: evaluation. If employees are not comfortable to work independently at this stage then steps 4-8 should be repeated.

To ensure effective human resource utilisation, a data base should be instituted to provide the

employees' current position, qualifications, potential, experiences and career path. The employees' academic achievement and studies being pursued should also be reflected. Changes should constantly be updated. Both lower and higher headquarters should have access to the information. This will assist succession planning, human resources development and the filling of human resources requirements (3.2; 3.3; 3.5; 7.3.1; 7.3.3).

As discussed in Chapter 6, managing diversity is not only effective in managing a diverse workforce, but also for addressing social imbalances, which are discussed below.

Historically disadvantaged Statutory Force members should be affirmed. This confirms the South African National Defence Force's commitment to eradicate social discrimination. The ranks that they would have received, provided all things were equal, from the time when they joined the South African Defence Force, should be conferred on them. The process would not disadvantage whites, because seniority prevents juniors from exceeding seniors (1.2; 6.2).

Affirmative action needs to precede equal employment opportunities, because historically disadvantaged employees cannot enjoy equal opportunities when they are not affirmed. Affirmative action recognises the multifaceted characteristics and competencies of the diverse workforce needed to increase productivity. It empowers the historically disadvantaged employees by tapping their latent potential, competencies and skills, which would not have been known, developed and optimally utilised. It makes managers aware that the diverse workforce is unique and should be treated as such. It develops and grooms disadvantaged leaders and prepares them to play an active role in the management of the South African National Defence Force (3.5; 6.3).



Leaders and managers are remunerated for the achievement of organisational goals and objectives and they should by the same token be disciplined when affirmative action programmes fail. Affirmative action needs to be an integral part of the management and strategic planning processes and should annually be reviewed with the medium- and short-term plans. Affirmative action does not intend to create reverse discrimination, but rather to motivate, educate, train, develop and optimally utilise the disadvantaged employees. It increases the abilities, skills, competencies and performance of the disadvantaged employees and enables them to compete favourably with their white counterparts in the labour market (3.5; 6.3).

Women are part of the workforce and should be managed and treated equally to men. Women's abilities, skills and competencies should be utilised in functional disciplines where they can best contribute toward the effectiveness of the South African National Defence Force. Women should be assessed on merit instead of on their physical abilities and should be promoted on performance rather than opinion (2.4; 3.5; 6.2; 6.3; 7.3.3).

The effectiveness of affirmative action programmes and systems can only be determined by feedback from employees and clients. Mentors need to submit written and/or verbal feedback to management and protégés respectively in respect of the performance of protégés. Protégés need to give formal and informal feedback to their supervisors regarding their progress. A committee consisting of the Officer Commanding or department head (chairperson), mentor, protégé and two colleagues should assess the performance of protégés. Management needs to motivate both protégés and mentors to exert their effort to achieve organisational goals and objectives (2.4; 3.4; 7.3.2).

Effective affirmative action programmes and systems will provide a career and corporate advancement for disadvantaged employees. Whites are part of the workforce and should therefore have equal access

to the organisation's resources that provides them with a career and corporate advancement (9.2).

To manage the diverse workforce requires leaders and managers who are committed to motivate the employees to achieve beyond their expectation. The next section deals with motivation and its influence on productivity.

## **9.6 MOTIVATION**

Managers and leaders should make available the organisation's resources to those employees who are desirous of improving their qualifications and competencies. Managers and leaders should use their managerial skills, leadership attitudes and personalities to motivate the diverse workforce to achieve self-actualisation, increase their performance and enhance productivity. This can be done through performance management that endeavours to develop (discussed in Chapter 3), motivate (discussed in Chapter 4) and increase employees' performance (discussed in Chapter 2) (4.4; 4.5; 4.6; 4.7; 4.8; 4.9).

Performance management is the focal point of motivation and should therefore replace performance appraisal. It should take place three times a year. During the first assessment, the supervisor and subordinate should determine goals and how these will be measured. The second assessment should evaluate the employees' performance and achievement of goals. The supervisor and subordinate should discuss corrective actions and formulate new goals for the remaining period of the year. The third assessment should evaluate the quality of employees' performance, the achievement of organisational goals. It should consider internal and external threats or challenges that may influence the achievement of goals and objectives. During this period, goals are reviewed and adjusted and new goals are set for the ensuing period. Performance deficiencies that have been corrected should not be used against employees during this assessment. The achievement of goals proves that employees can do far more

than is expected of them. This assessment should be used to determine promotion, merit bonus, future development and employment (4.7; 4.8; 4.9).

The performance review discussion should end on a positive note, because the employee should be motivated to use his or her energy to increase their performance. The Performance review committees should have equal gender representation. The chairperson and the secretary should be of a different race and gender. Performance feedback should be given at a time agreed upon by supervisors and subordinates. Employees need to trust the assessment instrument and should be given fair assessment (4.7; 4.8; 4.9).

The next section gives a summary of the recommendations.

## **9.7 SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS**

The previous sections discussed in detail the recommendations of the dissertation. This section gives a summary of the recommendations as set out in Table 9.1. It states the goal, the existing conditions and what should be done to improve the present conditions to reach the goal. It discusses human resource management, organisational culture, motivation, social imbalances and productivity.

## **9.8 CONCLUSION**

Both physical and human resource variables are needed to increase productivity. The study indicates that a balance should be maintained between the physical and human resource variables, because an imbalance of input resources influence the outcome of productivity. The study reveals that the success of managing the South African National Defence Force towards productivity from a human resource

TABLE 9.1: SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

	Goal	Existing	Improvement for future
1	<b>Human Resource Management</b> ▶ To optimally utilise the entire workforce.	▶ Non-Statutory Force employees are being trained and utilised. ▶ Statutory Force employees are qualified and have the potential to increase productivity but are not optimally utilised.	▶ Statutory Force employees should be optimally utilised in positions where they can use their potential to increase productivity. ▶ Competent Statutory Force employees should be appointed as mentors to Non-Statutory Force employees. ▶ Mentors should be co-responsible for the performance of protégés. ▶ Non-Statutory Force employees should be optimally utilised according to their potential in positions where they receive exposure and can make a contribution toward productivity. ▶ Leaders and managers need to be educated, trained and developed to adequately deal with corporate challenges and effectively manage the resources of the South African National Defence Force.



2	<p>► To effectively train and develop the entire workforce.</p>	<p>► Special attention is give to the training and development of Non-Statutory Force employees.</p> <p>► The training and development of Statutory Force employees are temporally on hold.</p>	<p>► Special training programmes should be implemented to accommodate the disadvantaged employees, so that they can contribute to productivity</p> <p>► To train and develop the entire workforce according to their potential and utilise them accordingly.</p>
3	<p>► Assessment centres should be optimally utilise to project and determine the HR potential of the South African National Defence Force.</p>	<p>► Assessment centres are decentralised and managed by the arms of service.</p>	<p>► Assessment centres should be centralised under the jurisdiction of Chief of Staff Personnel at Defence Headquarters.</p> <p>► Assessment centres should make provision for the unique human resource requirements of the arms of service .</p> <p>► Provision should be made for the development of junior officers who possess potential to become outstanding leaders.</p>

4	<p>► To effectively staff the new organisational structures of the South African National Defence Force.</p>	<p>► Non-Statutory Force employees were appointed to top, senior, middle and junior management positions.</p> <p>► Thousands of Statutory Force employees resigned by taking severance package.</p> <p>► Gender discrimination is prevalent.</p> <p>► White Statutory Force employees are in key positions and therefore still manage and control the South African National Defence Force.</p>	<p>► The staffing of the new organisational structures of the South African National Defence Force needs to take place in two phases.</p> <p>► Phase one:</p> <p>► The posts should be divided per management level into top, senior, middle and junior.</p> <p>► The posts should then be divided into gender and race.</p> <p>► These posts are then advertised per management category, gender and race.</p> <p>► Phase two:</p> <p>► The matching of incumbents to the most appropriate positions (see 1 above).</p> <p>► Ensure race and gender representation at the different hierarchical levels.</p>
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	Motivation		
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Leaders and managers should motivate the workforce to increase their performance and productivity.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The needs of Non-Statutory Force employees are being satisfied while the needs of the Statutory Force employees are overlooked.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Managers and leaders should make the organisation's resources available to those employees who are desirous of improving their qualifications and competencies.</li> <li>Managers and leaders should use their managerial skills, leadership attitudes and personalities to motivate the diverse workforce to change their behaviour and achieve self-actualisation, increase their performance and productivity.</li> </ul>
6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To use performance management to stimulate employees to increase their performance.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Performance appraisals focus on the past performance of employees and negative feedback affects employees' performance, which in turns influences productivity.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Performance management is the focal point of motivation because it focuses on employees' development, motivation and performance.</li> <li>Performance review feedback should be given at a time agreed upon by supervisors and subordinates.</li> <li>Employees should experience a fair assessment and trust the assessment instrument.</li> <li>To prevent gender discrimination, performance review committees should have equal gender representation.</li> </ul>

	Organisational culture		
7	<p>► To create a right atmosphere that enhances employees' performance and productivity.</p>	<p>► The organisation's culture creates an environment in which Non-Statutory Force employees are motivated to increase their performance and productivity.</p> <p>► An atmosphere should be created to motivate disgruntled Statutory Force employees to increase their performance and productivity.</p>	<p>► The South African National Defence Force's systems, structures, policies, procedures and practices should guide the employees to align their behaviour with the organisation's culture.</p> <p>► A military culture (see Figure 9.2) that makes provision for the needs and cultural differences of the diverse workforce should be established.</p> <p>► Inter-cultural learning should be part of the cultural orientation and military courses, which should include anthropology and sociology.</p> <p>► Leaders and managers should model and promote the new cultural lifestyle.</p>



	<b>Social Imbalances</b>		
8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ To affirm all historically disadvantaged employees.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Women and disadvantaged Non-Statutory Force employees were affirmed.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Disadvantaged Statutory Force employees should be affirmed.</li> <li>▶ Affirmative action is a human resource management tool, which enables managers to capitalise on the abilities, skills and competencies of the disadvantaged employees.</li> <li>▶ It is a means to utilise untapped latent potential that would otherwise not have been known, developed or optimally utilised.</li> <li>▶ Women should be assessed on merit, instead of physical ability or opinion. Leaders and managers should be held accountable when affirmative action programmes fail.</li> </ul>
	<b>Productivity</b>		
9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ To increase the productivity and effectiveness of the South African National Defence Force.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ The potential of the entire workforce is not optimally utilised.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ The entire workforce should be trained, developed, motivated and optimally utilised.</li> <li>▶ Productivity is the responsibility of all leaders and managers at the different hierarchical levels, because they manage the resources of the South African National Defence Force.</li> </ul>

management perspective depends on the effective management of the sum of its resources (physical and human resource variables). This requires committed, trained, competent and motivated employees. It requires an organisational culture and work environment that is conducive to the improvement of the quality of work life and increase of employees' performance, which enhances productivity.

The South African National Defence Force should create an organisational culture where the diverse workforce can be knitted into a unified whole. The employees should be able to use their competencies, experiences, personalities and qualifications to achieve self-actualisation and increase their performance. Effective human resource policies and practices need to be instituted to provide a work environment that improves the work life of all employees.

The diverse workforce of the South African National Defence Force has the capacity and abilities to deal with organisational challenges, because they can draw from a wider spectrum of competencies, skills, abilities, experiences, personalities, and qualifications. They are being trained, developed, motivated and optimally utilised to achieve organisational goals and objectives. Leaders and managers are being developed to deal with corporate challenges and effectively manage the organisation's resources. With all these qualities, the South African National Defence Force should increase its productivity.

The next chapter highlights the major factors that influence the managing of the South African National Defence Force towards productivity from a human resource management perspective.

## CHAPTER 10

### GENERAL OVERVIEW

#### 10.1 INTRODUCTION

This study is divided into three parts: the theoretical analysis, operationalisation and findings, recommendations and conclusion. The first part of the dissertation, namely Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5 discussed the theoretical analysis. Chapter 2 dealt with the dependent variable, productivity. It discussed the meaning of productivity and alluded to the resources that influence and increase it. It focused on human resource variables, the vital resources that influence productivity, because they add value to the physical variables by designing, constructing and producing consumable goods and services. It stated that productivity increases as the output of the human resource variables intensify, which in turn increase and influence productivity. It also discussed a productivity index that serves as a measurement to determine the level of productivity of an organisation.

Chapter 3 explored how the first independent human resource variable, human resource management, has the ability to utilise the other resources more effectively to achieve organisational goals as productively as possible. Human resources are the major resource that influences productivity, because it has the ability to control and manage the physical variables. Managers are increasingly taking responsibility for recruitment, selection, development and utilisation of their employees, because they recognise that the labour market from which they recruit their employees is diverse. Human resource management matches employees' abilities, competencies and skills to the job requirements, to ensure that the best employees are appointed in the most appropriate positions. This enables management to capitalise on employees' competencies and skills, which they use to increase their performance and enhance productivity.

Human resource management is supported by three integrated factors that ensure its effectiveness. Human resource planning ensures that the organisation has a large pool of employees from which to select candidates to fill the immediate and future human resource requirements. Human resource development ensures that employees are trained and developed to execute their job more effectively and to fill senior positions. Managing diversity ensures that employees' abilities, competencies and skills are optimally utilised to achieve increased productivity and organisational goals and objectives.

Chapter 4 dealt with the second independent human resource variable, motivation, which influences the attitude and behaviour of the workforce and stimulates them to improve their performance. It is used to motivate the employees to achieve self-actualisation and individual and organisational goals and objectives. Motivation encourages employees to use their competencies and skills to increase their performance and productivity. It discussed three groups of motivation theories: content theories, process theories and reinforcement theory. Content theories of motivation explain the dynamics of employees' needs – why employees have different needs at different times. Process theories of motivation describe the motive for employees' behaviour – what employees do to satisfy their needs. Reinforcement Theory focuses directly on the behaviour that employees would use to increase their performance. These are the means management would use to satisfy employees' needs.

Chapter 5 focused on the third independent human resource variable, organisational culture, which can be used to stifle or promote productivity through its nature. It affects the functioning and operation of the organisation and in turn affects the work life of employees. It impacts on the behaviour of the workforce and influences their performance and enhances productivity. It stated that culture is crucial in developing and maintaining levels of intensity and commitment among employees. It argued that culture enables management to introduce, inculcate and



reinforce new values, beliefs, traditions and norms in employees. The chapter also stated that organisational culture is the foundation upon which the other human resource variables can be built, because it creates a right atmosphere that allows employees to optimally utilise the organisation's resources for increasing their performance and productivity.

The second part of the dissertation dealt with the operationalisation of the South African National Defence Force as a case study, which is discussed in Chapters 6 and 7 respectively. Chapter 6 explored how social imbalances created a gulf between whites and blacks. It allowed whites access to organisational resources, while depriving blacks. This disadvantaged blacks in terms of development, utilisation and corporate advancement. It prevented the South African National Defence Force from optimally utilising its entire workforce to increase productivity. It discussed how affirmative action dealt with past social imbalances, but reiterated that managing diversity is a means of empowering a diverse workforce to increase their performance and productivity.

Chapter 7 dealt with the interaction and interdependence between human resource planning, human resource development and managing diversity. These factors enable the South African National Defence Force to recruit, select, develop and manage the workforce to achieve organisational and individual goals and objectives. It also discussed how motivation stimulates employees to accept challenging goals and encourages them to use their competencies and skills to achieve these goals. It discussed how management uses organisational culture to introduce and inculcate new behaviour in employees. This is reinforced by rewarding appropriate behaviour. The chapter argued that the effective management of the human resource variables can result in higher productivity.

The third part of the dissertation discussed the findings, recommendations and conclusion. Chapter 8 focused on the findings of the study, along with the associated causes that need to be

remedied to bring about the desired results. Chapter 9 presented the recommendations that are considered valid in the light of the deduced evidence, rather than being presented as irrefutable truth. They are based on the insights gained during the research.

This chapter gives a general overview of the study and emphasises how the sum of resources resulted in managing the South African National Defence Force towards productivity from a human resource management perspective. Figure 10.1 illustrates the logical progression of the chapter.

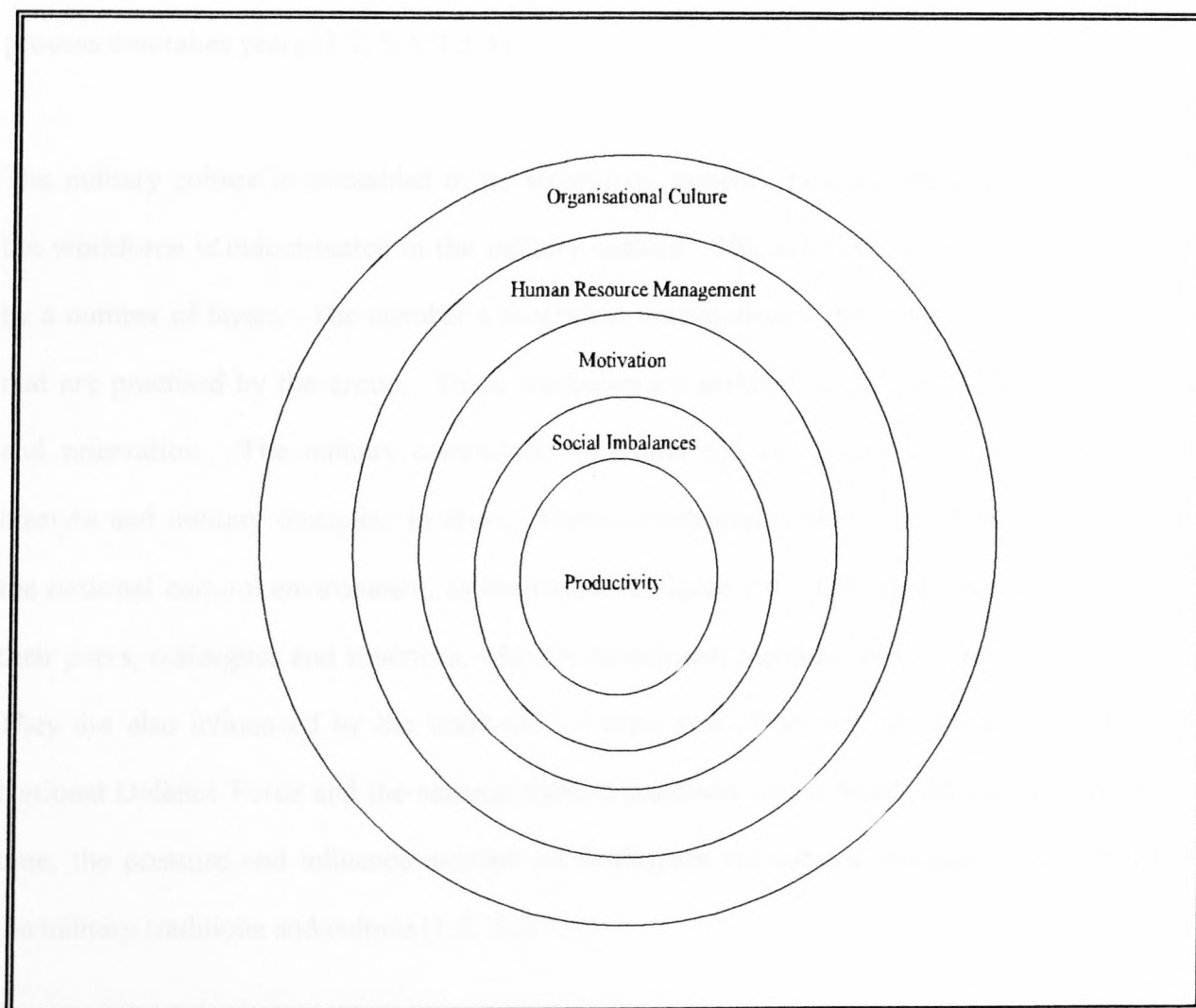
## **10.2 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

Figure 9.2 proposes a human resource management model to increase productivity from a human resource management perspective in the South African National Defence Force. The circle, the first part of the figure discusses organisational culture. Organisational culture is the organisation's shared beliefs, values and norms. The South African National Defence Force is comprised of subcultures, which have their unique traditions, values and norms. These cultural differences separate the South African National Defence Force from other organisations. The South African National Defence Force uses formal and informal mechanisms (military ceremonies, sports, news letters and appointments) to introduce, reinforce and perpetuate organisational traditions, values and norms. Leaders play a crucial role in establishing an organisational culture. Therefore, leaders should set an example and be consistent in practising what they advocate, because leaders' perceptions are accepted as reality. This accounts for the differences between leaders' and subordinates' perception of reality (5.2; 5.3).

The South African National Defence Force used the Burke-Litwen model of organisational performance (see Figure 7.3) to establish an organisational culture that would accommodate the

**FIGURE: 10.1: A HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT APPROACH TO  
PRODUCTIVITY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE  
FORCE**

**SOURCE:** Compiled by the researcher, S. B. Kahn, 2005



transformation. The model was used to guide the processes of organisational change within the South African National Defence Force. The model emphasised the inter-relationship between organisational structures, the differences between transformational and transactional leadership and the crucial role of leaders in initiating and effecting change. The latter is difficult to change because the military culture is deeply rooted in the organisation's traditions, the military culture is a way of life that separates soldiers from civilians and the new military culture implies a change of mind, attitude, behaviour, language, traditions, norms, values and lifestyle, which is a process that takes years (1.2; 5.3; 7.3.3).

The military culture is embedded in its structures, systems, policies and practices. Therefore, the workforce is indoctrinated in the military culture. The employees are culturally influenced by a number of layers. The member's functional (occupational) discipline has its own traditions that are practised by the group. These traditions are instilled in the employees during training and orientation. The military community in which the employees live sustains the military lifestyle and military discipline in them. Cultural behaviour takes place within the context of the national cultural environment, as illustrated in Figure 7.4. The employees are influenced by their peers, colleagues and superiors, who are constituent members of their functional discipline. They are also influenced by the traditions of their arm of service, the broader South African National Defence Force and the national culture practised within South Africa. Therefore, with time, the pressure and influence exerted on employees via cultural avenues accustom them to the military traditions and culture (1.2; 5.3; 6.4).

Leadership exercises influence to motivate and change the behaviour of employees. Leaders can influence employees by applying different leadership styles (autocratic, democratic, participative, transactional, instrumental and transformational) in the appropriate situation. The success of the organisation depends on the quality (competent and professional) and



qualification (education, training and development) of its leaders. Leaders should be both task- and people-oriented to ensure that the workforce is motivated to achieve organisational goals and objectives. They should have knowledge of current affairs in order to understand the political, social and economic factors, that influence and impact on the organisation. They should formulate and institute policies and practices that will improve the work life of the diverse workforce and should execute their social responsibility in a way that is beneficial to all communities (5.4).

Transformational, transactional and instrumental leaders can use their abilities to facilitate the organisation's transformation and re-organisation and to create an organisational culture that is conducive to a diverse workforce by motivating employees to use their potential to achieve self-actualisation and increased performance, which in turn enhance productivity. There is a distinct difference between corporate and military leadership. The environment in which military leadership is exercised can be life-threatening, particularly during combat. Military leaders have power to command military forces and sentence uniformed personnel (5.4).

The next section discusses human resource management.

### **10.3 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

The human resource management model (Figure 9.1), ensures the effective management of people by emphasising employees as focal point of productivity. It focuses on the individual employee's training, development, utilisation and aids management to capitalise on employees' potential. It ensures the implementation of management policies and practices that treat all employees equally however, it provides additional support systems and programmes to accommodate the training and development of disadvantaged employees. The model allows for

the appointment of the most competent employees to the most appropriate positions and for rewarding them according to their performance. The model also allows management to create a right atmosphere that influences the behaviour of employees and motivates them to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity. It allows employees to develop and progress according to their abilities to achieve self-actualisation. Employees are different and have different competencies, skills and abilities that should be developed and utilised to achieve the goals and objectives of the South African National Defence Force (2.4; 3.2; 3.4; 3.5; 4.4; 4.5; 4.6; 4.7; 7.3; 7.3.2; 7.3.3).

Human resources are the one resource without which organisations cannot operate. It adds value to goods and services and ensures the quality of consumable goods and services. Human resources orchestrate, organise, coordinate, direct, control and manage the physical resources that are needed to increase productivity therefore, the South African National Defence Force should effectively manage people (3.2; 3.3; 7.3.1).

Human resource planning ensures the availability of labour sources from which the organisation can recruit and select candidates to fill its human resource requirements. It provides for short-term emergencies, as well as long-term needs. The uncertainties of the 1990s, rationalisation, severance packages, demobilisation, liquidations and huge labour turnovers, have made long-term planning unproductive. The management process of the South African National Defence Force makes provision for short-, medium- and long term planning. The processes involves management at different hierarchical levels. Each hierarchical level ensures that they have sufficient labour to be operational (3.2; 3.3; 7.3.1).

Human resources are the biggest single cost item of the South African National Defence Force. The organisation applies selection tests (personality questionnaires, ability and aptitude tests,

intelligence tests and assessment centres) to determine the abilities of candidates and to select those candidates whose competencies and skills match the job requirements. Human resource planning selects candidates who possess the necessary competencies, skills and abilities that the organisation requires to accomplish its goals and objectives. It is, therefore, necessary that the best candidates are recruited and employed, because the best employees are twice as good as poor employees. Selection plays a crucial role in determining the appointment of employees to fill human resource requirements, the effort that is exerted to increase productivity, the quality of employees that are employed, the level of employees' self-motivation and the level of employees' performance. It is a challenge for the South African National Defence Force to recruit candidates from the best employees per functional discipline. This places an obligation on the South African National Defence Force to train and develop its employees to ensure they are trained, competent and professional to accomplish organisational goals and objectives (3.3; 3.4; 3.5; 7.3.2).

Human resource development is beneficial to both workforce and organisation. Employees achieve self-actualisation, improve their performance and receive increased remuneration. The organisation becomes more competitive and enjoys increased productivity. The employees choose a career in a particular arm of service and functional discipline and career development is thus the individual's responsibility. It is management's responsibility to motivate employees to improve their competencies, skills and abilities. Management development is crucial to prepare managers to deal with corporate challenges, manage the organisation's resources and ensure the accomplishment of increased productivity (3.4; 7.3.2).

Mentors are used to train and coach protégés. The mentor-protégé relationship builds employees' trust and confidence in mastering their functional discipline. Non-Statutory Force employees should be assigned a mentor to coach and counsel them (3.4).

A diverse workforce is more productive than a homogeneous one, because they can draw from a wide spectrum of competencies, skills, experiences, qualifications and personalities, which they can use to find solutions to complex problems and produce better goods and services (3.2; 3.3; 3.4; 3.5).

Management should reward employees according to their performance. Achievers should be rewarded intrinsically and extrinsically. Poor employees should be encouraged to improve their performance. Managers should motivate both achievers and non-achievers so that they can achieve organisational goals and objectives (3.5; 4.5).

Training creates the appropriate environment where employees may acquire specific job-related behaviours and competencies to execute their functions, duties and responsibilities. Development is the increase of knowledge and learning that occurs independent of formal instruction. Learning focuses on the individual's growth and on the use of knowledge to increase employees' performance and productivity. Learning is influenced by various factors, such as, exposure, experience, education and personality. These abilities create a distinction between trained and undertrained, educated and uneducated, and privileged and disadvantaged employees. Therefore, special training programmes should be instituted to accommodate disadvantaged employees. Training and development ensure that the workforce keeps abreast of technological advancement in their respective disciplines. Training increases the employees' competencies, skills, abilities and performance, which in turn enhances productivity (3.4; 7.3.2).

The next section discusses motivation.



## 10.4 MOTIVATION

Motivation is the driving force that energises, directs and sustains employees' behaviour to achieve organisational goals and objectives. It is a crucial element that is evident in employees' performance and increased productivity. Management uses different motivational techniques to ensure that the workforce is motivated. Content theories of motivation explain the dynamics of employees' needs, such as why employees have different needs at different times. Content theories of motivation answer the question: what needs do employees have that should be met on the job? It focuses on identifying and understanding employees' needs. It deals with unmet needs that could be satisfied at work. By understanding employees' needs, management can discover what motivates them (4.4).

Maslow advocates that all individuals have a set of human needs that are prioritised on an ascending scale: physiological, safety and security, belongingness, esteem and ego and self-actualisation needs. These needs are prevalent in the South African National Defence Force, because the workforce comes from different social, economic and political backgrounds and therefore have different needs and wants that should be satisfied accordingly. The South African National Defence Force satisfies the basic needs (remuneration, rewards, medical, pension, housing and medals) of employees, but also higher needs (self-actualisation and corporate advancement) of achievers (4.4.1; 4.4.2).

Alderfer's ERG Theory groups human needs into three broad categories: existence, relatedness and growth. Existence needs include a person's physiological and physically related safety needs, such as the need for food, shelter and safe working conditions. Relatedness needs include a person's need to interact with other people, receive public recognition, and feel secure around people; that is interpersonal safety. Growth needs consist of a person's self-esteem through

personal achievement, as well as the concept of self-actualisation presented in Maslow's model (4.4.1; 4.4.2).

Herzberg Motivator-Hygiene Theory proposes that employees are primarily motivated by growth and esteem needs, such as recognition, responsibility, advancement, achievement and personal growth. These factors are called motivators because employees experience job satisfaction when they are received and are therefore motivated to obtain them. Hygienes are extrinsic factors to the work; they affect the extent to which employees feel job dissatisfaction. Hygienes include job security, working conditions, policies, co-employee relations and supervisor relations. The workforce of the South African National Defence Force experience the Motivator-Hygiene Theory: (1) in career development and corporate advancement of employees; (2) power and authority that allows employees to execute their functional duties and responsibilities; (3) systems, structures and policies that create an environment that allows employees to achieve self-actualisation (4.4.3).

McClelland's Theory of Learned Needs focuses on three needs: achievement, affiliation and power. Employees with a high need for achievement want to accomplish reasonably challenging goals through their own efforts. Need for affiliation refers to a desire to seek approval from others, conform to their wishes and expectations, and avoid conflict and confrontation. Employees with a strong need for affiliation want to form positive relationships with co-employees. Need for power refers to a desire to control one's environment, including people and material resources. Employees with a high need for power want to exercise control over others and maintain their leadership position. Achievers are employees who have reached their peak (top and senior executive positions) in the South African National Defence Force. They experience job satisfaction and corporate advancement. Social groups, sports and recreational clubs reveal the social nature of employees to belong, to be accepted and interact

with one another. Employees in leadership and management positions display their power by exercising control over others (4.4.4).

Process theories of motivation describe the processes through which needs are translated into behaviour. Process theories explain why someone with a particular need engages in a particular direction, intensity and persistence of effort to reduce the need tension. Process motivation theories answer the question: how do employees choose behaviour to fulfill their needs? It focuses on understanding how employees choose behaviour to fulfill their needs. It deals with motive – how employees select the correct behaviour to satisfy a particular need. This means that employees choose different behaviour to satisfy different needs (4.5).

Figure 4.4 illustrates how the various motivational techniques can be used to motivate a diverse workforce. The Cognitive Evaluation Theory focuses on extrinsic rewards, which influence the intrinsic interest in the tasks. The rewards become more important than the work. The Expectancy Theory allows employees to evaluate their performance, which they compare with their fellow employees. The theory also focuses on how rewards stimulate individual effort that increases individual performance and satisfaction. The recurrence of the performance-reward relationship cycle depends on the rewards that employees receive. The Reinforcement Theory focuses on the quality that reinforces the desired behaviour and encourages continued increase in performance. The Equity Theory allows employees to compare themselves with employees of the same functional discipline in the same organisation or in other organisations. The employees respond when there are inequalities between them and relevant others. Management can avoid work disruption by treating all employees the same and giving them what they deserve. The Goals Setting Theory give employees opportunities to set specific, challenging goals. The employees use their competencies, skills and abilities to achieve those goals. The goals motivate employees to increase their performance and the quality of goods and services.

Beliefs increase employees' self-confidence and trust in their abilities to achieve beyond their expectations (4.4; 4.5).

Reinforcement Theory answers the question: what can managers do to get employees to behave in ways that meet the organisational goals and objectives? It deals with how employees behave or act to satisfy a need. It argues that through the consequences of behaviour employees will be motivated to behave in predetermined ways. It argues that behaviour is learned through consequences, which is administrated by managers. The consequences can either lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction – the degree to which the need is met and for how long before dissatisfaction reoccurs, creating another unmet need. The cycle is then repeated (4.6).

Management can also use these motivational techniques to express appreciation for the achievement of organisational goals and objectives by rewarding employees intrinsically and extrinsically. Extrinsic rewards can be used to distinguish achievers from non-achievers. Motivational techniques should be used to motivate the diverse workforce to use their competencies, skills and abilities to increase their performance and productivity (4.4; 4.5).

Management uses performance appraisal as a tool to appraise employees' performance. Performance appraisal allows for a discussion between supervisors and subordinates. It is here where supervisors and subordinates discuss motivational issues, performance goals and work challenges. Performance appraisal allows supervisors to reward subordinates according to their performance. The higher the rewards, the higher the level of motivation. Thus, motivation increases employees' performance, which enhances productivity (4.7; 4.8; 4.9).

Employees participate in the management processes. They have a career discussion with their immediate supervisor during which they discuss the employee's career prospects in conjunction



with the needs, goals and objectives of the organisation. The higher hierarchical levels have input in the management processes because they transfer, appointment and promote employees. Performance appraisal is a process that takes place four times a year. It is done by the subordinate's immediate supervisor. The process involves a discussion between the rater and ratee. A committee, consisting of a chairperson (departmental head or Officer Commanding), a secretary, the rater, ratee, a colleague and a senior officer or noncommissioned officer verifies the assessment before it is submitted to the next level of the hierarchy (3.4; 3.4;7.3.2).

The next section focuses on social imbalances.

## **10.5 SOCIAL IMBALANCES**

The apartheid government of South African legislated laws that distinguished the disadvantaged majority from the privileged minority. The discriminatory laws, policies and practices impoverished the black labour force by denying blacks the right of political participation, depriving blacks of economic prosperity and quality education and withholding social upliftment from them. Under apartheid, the South African Defence Force practised discriminatory policies and practices that discriminated against blacks. Blacks were neither appointed as military attachés, nor appointed to key hierarchical positions such as, General Officer Commanding of Western Military Region. They were not equally remunerated for the same job and rank, nor allowed access to all functional disciplines (1.2; 6.2).

Institutional discrimination also resulted in the unfair treatment of women. Management used women's personal lives as reasons not to promote them to top and senior executive positions. The appointment of blacks and white women to senior and top management positions meant that

white men could not be promoted to those positions. Institutional racism and sexism gradually changed to accommodate the disadvantaged employees (6.2; 6.3).

Affirmative action is line management's responsibility. It is a process whereby the disadvantaged employees are granted benefits formally reserved for whites only. Affirmative action is a human resource management tool that create a pool of available candidates from which to fill human resource requirements. It creates opportunities for the training, development and optimal utilisation of the disadvantaged employees, while being coached the best mentors. It is a means that allows for organisational representation at all management levels. Affirmative action bridges racial discrimination, encourages cultural learning and promotes cultural tolerance. It allows for fast-tracking of achievers who can be appointed to senior and top management positions. It allowed management to affirm Non-Statutory Force employees. This made managers aware of unused potential that can be utilised to contribute towards productivity. The failure of affirmative action can be ascribed to senior and top line managers who are not committed to affirmative action programmes. Failure means that managers and leaders have failed to accomplish organisational goals and objectives. Those who are guilty of this act should be disciplined (3.3; 3.4; 3.5; 6.3; 7.3.1; 7.3.2; 7.3.3).

The diverse workforce of the South African National Defence Force makes it imperative for management to capitalise on the skills, abilities and competencies of each employee in order to achieve increased productivity. The next section discusses productivity.

## **10.6 PRODUCTIVITY**

The corporate world became obsessed with productivity during the industrial revolution of the eighteenth century. The focus was on the efficient and effective use of resources to improve the

quality of goods, services and to increase productivity. Productivity is the focal point of the industrial world. It is the outcome of physical and human resource variables, which increase wealth, quality of goods and services and improve the standard of living and the quality of life (2.3; 2.4; 3.2).

Productivity is dependent on the right combination of input (physical and human resource) to produce the desired outcome. Human resources are a major component of productivity because it affects the development of technological advancement, the effective use of machines, tools and equipment, the construction of hardware and software and the management of physical resources (2.3; 3.2; 3.5; 7.2; 5.3.2).

Productivity stimulates the economy by increasing the quality of goods and services, improving the standard of living and the quality of life. It is the outcome of employees' performance, which increases profit and capital investment. Productivity is expressed in different formulae, but uses the same resources to produce consumable goods and services:

$$\text{Productivity} = \frac{\text{output (value of goods and services)}}{\text{input (cost of resources consumed)}}$$

The total calculation of both input and output should be compared. It is only when the output exceeds the input that increased productivity occurs. Productivity should be expressed in economic terms; the amount of profit or savings gained. Private organisations use the former, while public institutions use the latter (2.3; 3.2).

The productivity factors indicate that the South Africa National Defence Force has to deal with a number of challenges, such as making work groups more diverse and optimally utilising them to be more productive; replacing obsolete armament, equipment and technology and training

employees to use them; managing the transformation and reorganisation and establishing an inter-cultural learning environment; motivating the diverse workforce to increase their performance and creating an organisational culture that facilitates these changes. The productivity factors also indicate that the South Africa National Defence Force is progressing toward productivity. It is educating, training, developing, motivating and utilising the potential of all employees. It creates opportunities for employees to use their potential to increase their performance by involving them in the decision-making processes and decentralisation of authority. It allows equal opportunities and corporate advancement to all employees (3.2; 3.3; 3.4; 3.5; 7.3.1; 7.3.2; 7.3.3).

The multi-billion arms procurement deal will provide the South African National Defence Force with the needed sophisticated armament, equipment, material and technology to be an effective military force. The arms procurement (see 6.4 and 9.2) should be used as a mechanism: (1) to challenge and benefit the entire workforce; (2) since affirmative action benefits disadvantaged blacks and nothing is done to motivate disgruntle Asians, coloureds and whites to use their potential to increase their performance and productivity. The new armament and technology can be used to motivate and level the playing field for both Non-Statutory Force and Statutory Force employees; (3) it can provide equal opportunities to both whites and blacks; (4) the effective utilisation of new armament and technology can be used to determine future development and corporate advancement (see Figure 9.1). This will motivate employees to determine and be responsible for their career development and stimulate them to increase their performance and productivity. These resources are needed to increase the employees' performance, which enhances the organisation's productivity. An imbalance of input resources influences the outcome of productivity. Therefore, the workforce should be trained, developed and given the required armament, equipment and technology to increase their performance and



enhance productivity. The management of the sum of the above resources will increase productivity (2.3; 3.2; 7.2).

Increased productivity rewards stakeholders that are directly involved with it; the workforce receives increased remuneration and rewards and the organisation receives greater profits and capital investment. The benefits of increased productivity enhance economic growth, improve the standard of living and the social status of employees. Increased productivity, however, also has disadvantages that are not immediately noticeable. Increased productivity cannot satisfy all of society's needs and wants because of limited natural resources that are depleted. It makes some jobs obsolete, which in turn makes employees redundant and retrenchable. The benefits of increased productivity however override the disadvantages (2.3; 3.2; 7.2).

The productivity index, Table 7.1 is a means to assist management to determine the level of productivity in an organisation. The productivity index deals with human resource variables (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture) that influence productivity. These factors includes aspects that increase employees' abilities, skills and management's competencies (2.3; 3.2).

The next section deals with future research.

## **10.7 FUTURE RESEARCH**

The previous section discussed how the human resource variables (human resource management, motivation and organisational culture) can influence managing the South African National Defence Force towards productivity from a human resource management perspective. This section discusses challenges for future research.

The transformation of the Public Service affected all state departments, but placed a greater strain on the Department of Defence. Unlike the other state departments, which amalgamated into one national state department, the Department of Defence integrated the Statutory Forces from the Homelands, as well as the Non-Statutory Forces. The integration of the seven armed forces into the South African National Defence Force placed a further constraint on the already reduced Defence Budget. This affected the facilities, armament and equipment. The arms procurement is the solution that will replace the above physical resources. The outcome of productivity can only be determined when the entire workforce is trained, competent and professional. A study should be conducted to determine the extent to which human resources and arms procurement influenced performance and productivity.

Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo are in the process of rebuilding their country. The defence force is one institution that plays a major role in establishing political stability, in which business transactions can take place. In order to do this, the defence force has to train its soldiers for their new role during and after the transition. The human resource management model discussed in this dissertation can serve as a model for managing contemporary human resource issues that will empower the soldiers of Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo for their new role in the defence force.

## **10.8 CONCLUSION**

In the past, improvement of productivity focused on the physical resources (technology and capital) and used industrial engineering techniques to reduce the input of labour costs. This trend has changed toward better use of the potential available through human resources because organisations need both physical and human resources to increase employees' performance, which in turn enhance productivity.

The physical variables provide employees with the means (armament, equipment and computers) to increase productivity. The arms procurement deal will make this a reality. The human resource variables provide employees with abilities, skills, competencies and training and development that enable them to be qualified, competent and professional. The human resource variables also enable management to motivate the employees to use their competencies and skills to increase their performance, which enhances productivity. They enable management to create an organisational culture that facilitates employees' self-actualisation and increases their performance, thus enhancing productivity. Organisational culture enables management to create a right atmosphere that inculcates in employees the shared beliefs, values and norms of the organisation. These attributes direct the behaviour of employees to achieve organisational goals and objectives.

The diverse workforce can draw from a wide spectrum of experiences, competencies, personalities, skills, abilities, qualifications and types of intelligence and use their innovative and creative skills to make critical decisions, find solutions to complex problems and produce better goods and services. These factors can be achieved through the effective management of the human resource variables, which may contribute to the management of the South African National Defence Force towards productivity from a human resource management perspective.

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